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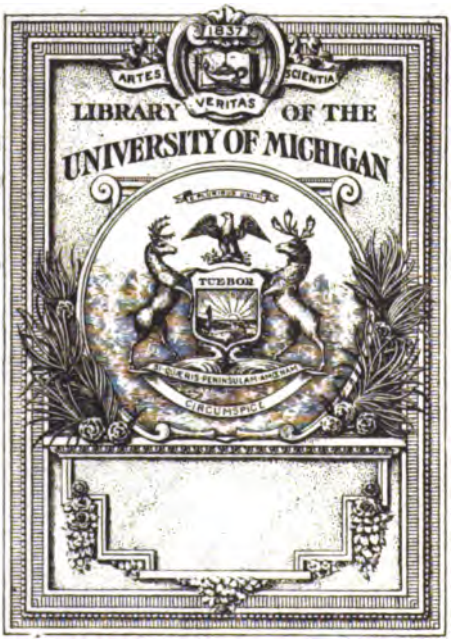

THE GIFT OF
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Held at
Cleveland, Ohio, March 28 and 29, 1902

EDITED BY
FRED NEWTON SCOTT
SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

ANN ARBOR
PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
1902

Copies of the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. J. E. Armstrong, Englewood High School, Chicago. The price of single copies is twenty-five cents. The price of the complete set as far as published (eight numbers, including the Report of the Preliminary Meeting for Organization) is $1.50.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, April 3 and 4, 1903.

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The seventh annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in the parlors of the Hollenden Hotel, Cleveland, Ohio, on Friday and Saturday, March 28 and 29, 1902.

FIRST SESSION, FRIDAY ~~EVENING~~ Morning ?.

The Association was called to order at 10:30 a. m. by the President, Chancellor W. S. Chaplin, of Washington University. The address of welcome was given by Superintendent L. H. Jones, of Cleveland, who spoke as follows:

I esteem it an honor as well as a pleasure to be allowed to say to you just a word of greeting.

For seven years I have been allowed the privilege of paying my annual dues to this Association, and at every meeting have been present in spirit, but this is my first bodily appearance. It will therefore seem to you almost as if an outsider were giving you the word of welcome.

Indeed, Cleveland is proud to have you meet here. You are an Association which rarely meets away from its home, and when it does, it selects the best place. For that reason we are glad to have you here.

The constitution of this Association appears to be of the kind sure to advance education. It is never quite well, it seems to me, to have a body made up entirely of people with a common interest. Colleges and schools have certain fundamental principles that are common to the work of both, and yet there are certain marked differences. And I certainly believe it to be to our common good to look at these questions from different points. It is therefore fortunate for this body that we are composed of people from these different classes of schools.

Speaking at first entirely from the position of the public schools, I would say that, it seems to me, there would really be no difficulty at all in reaching a proper settlement of these questions of the secondary schools providing the college authorities at all times granted all that the secondary schools asked of them. I cannot take the time from your programme to discuss this question. This will perhaps be done at another time and place.

Now I think there is one thing to be done, and that is to charge both the secondary schools and colleges with one sin, which seems common to all, the tendency to teach subjects rather than students; and I believe that this may with propriety be charged more strongly against the colleges than the secondary schools. It seems to me that this is no small matter that the attention of the student should be strongly turned to the study of a single branch of learning without any attempt to see the relationship of that special branch to all others and to the conduct of life. I freely grant that it may sometimes be necessary for the sake of original research that some one should follow out one line of work; but in this case there is a return to such a person which partially makes up for the loss.

I even carry the idea so far that when a person applies to me for a position as teacher of Algebra, Latin, English, etc., I may say to him that we do not teach these

subjects. That immediately raises a new question. Then I add that we have some most excellent teachers in our schools who use Algebra, Latin, English, etc., as a means of instruction, as a means of transfer of knowledge, but they do not teach these subjects,—they do teach pupils.

There is another question which will be brought before you today,—the matter of admission to the colleges. The day is coming, no matter what the college authorities say, when a graduate from the high school will not have to ask for admission to any college or University, but will find the door of all such wide open. And the question then will not be whether he can enter college, but whether he can stay in college.

I repeat that we cordially greet you and are glad to have you with us.

President Chaplin then delivered the annual address as follows:

EDUCATION AND SUCCESS.

To make a successful man four things are certainly necessary. There doubtless are other elements which may and do contribute to success, but these four I regard as essential. They are:

1. A certain amount of knowledge.
2. A certain mental training.
3. Fixed moral standards.
4. A set purpose.

What success is, what a successful man is, I will not attempt to define here; I will only say that to me the word carries with it an idea of service to one's fellowmen, individually and collectively. This success depends, I believe, on the four things named. There is no real success, no success which we can hold up to the young as a model, without them.

Accidental prominence, either from wealth, or advancement in politics, or from any other cause which has to be classed as exceptional and fortuitous, I exclude because we are looking for the causes which we can expect to command success.

It is one of our duties to mark the distinction between real and spurious success, between success which makes for the general good and that which is at the expense of and to the detriment of the public.

Now of these four, the first, "a certain amount of knowledge," is and has been provided by our educational institutions. It may, let us admit, be secured without their aid. But the progress through our schools is a much surer and more inexpensive way than any other. The self-taught man is a very valuable member of society. The trouble with him is that he is so rare, and that measuring the actual cost in time and effort to himself and to the community, he is expensive. How much more might such men as Abraham Lincoln have accomplished for themselves and others had they had the advantages of the schools of the present day, had they found the path to knowledge smoothed for their onward steps. Admitting fully that knowledge may be acquired without the schools, it would be idle to deny the value and efficiency of schooling in the making of successful men.

The second of the requisites for success which I have named, "a certain mental training," has not at all times received the attention which it deserved, but the characteristic educational feature of the present day is, I think, the prominence which is given to this training. We begin, at least begin, to see that any study pursued in the right way carries with it mental training; that the mind once trained to accurate thinking in any one subject will be likely to think accurately in regard to any other subject; and, consequently, that the individual choice of studies loses much of the importance which was

once attached to it. The power to think accurately and quickly, again, can be and is acquired by many outside of our schools, through the hard knocks of practical experience. Indeed, I fear our schools will never excel the school of experience in some of its training. What body of scholars can equal the street boys in quickness or aptness of repartee? The course of training in our schools has advantages over the school of experience in that it is systematic and progressive, that it is always under kindly direction, and lastly and mainly, that its failures are not necessarily fatal.

The third point mentioned, "fixed moral standards," depends upon two other educational institutions besides the schools,—the home and the church. All these forces acting together are none too strong for the task before them. Whether on the whole they are succeeding or failing, whether our country is becoming more or less moral, is a question which cannot be answered with certainty. The statistics are imperfect and doubtful. As to the truth each one will have his impression, which will depend on his standpoint, and perhaps more still on his digestion or liver. But whatever the fact may be, the home, the church and the school are the forces which work for good in the struggle; and the school, I suspect, is, or can be made, the strongest force of the three. For, after all, in teaching morality example is more effective than precept, and I believe that our educational institutions as a whole offer the best models we have of right living and right thinking. The school, or college, or University which will tolerate a teacher who is in any way immoral is rare, extremely rare. To be for hours daily during the plastic years of one's life in contact with the class of people to which our teachers belong, is in itself a very great incentive to morality. To feel that one is incurring their displeasure and condemnation is a check to wrong doing. The opinion of the teachers is a safe, settled and

kindly public opinion, acting in the most direct way. Whether it is possible to have more systematic teaching of morals in our schools is much debated, but not yet decided. I will not attempt to discuss the question here. But I may venture to say that to me it seems in every way desirable, and entirely practicable to lay much more stress on the teaching of morals than we do now. The discipline of our schools is by far the best discipline our young people receive.

To learn of the existence of superior authority, to be held to regular and satisfactory performance of tasks, to be made to recognize the rights of others, to be a part of a steadily moving organism, to be made to come and go at fixed times, is a great part of the training essential to good citizenship. In the schools these matters receive more attention than anywhere outside of them. Together with many and evident disadvantages, there are decided benefits which come from the compulsory military service of some European countries. Let us hope that we may long be spared such a system. Now we do not need it. The benefits which come from the military system are somewhat similar to those which spring from our schools —the sense of order, regularity, promptness, subordination and responsibility. When we consider the possible efficiency of our schools in reference to the teaching of morals, it must come home to us how important it is that the management of our schools shall be free from the taint of dishonesty. It is difficult for teachers to emphasize the necessity of honesty, when the powers over them are giving an example of the opposite quality.

The fourth and last of the things which I have mentioned as essential to success is "a set purpose." Men as I see them vary most neither in their natural abilities, nor in their knowledge, nor in their mental training, though in all these points they vary greatly, but in the matter of definiteness of aim, in clearness and fixedness of pur-

pose. We teachers, give us time, can drive a certain amount of knowledge into almost any person's head, we can give some mental training to almost any pupil. We do not expect the quickest scholar always to be the most successful man, nor do we give up hope of the success of even the dull scholar. A fair acquaintance with the biography of great men would show us that the race is not always to the swift. But the youth without purpose is, I think I may say, the despair of parents, friends and teachers alike. After some consideration of this matter I believe that about the most important of all the requisites is the fixed purpose,—leaving out the third, I am sure it is the most important; for if this be strong it will overcome all obstacles and the other requisites will be secured. I should have more hope of the final success of one who had no knowledge or training, but whose purpose was high and fixed, than of one who had the first two requisites and lacked the last. For the need of the knowledge and training would in time become evident, and he who had the purpose would acquire them.

The fixed purpose, then, I consider of prime importance to the youth who would succeed. and I believe that the school and college years are the time when this purpose is usually established. Indeed, if in all these years nothing else is accomplished, if the youth only discovers what he can do best, or (what amounts to the same thing), what of all things he would like best to do, and determines to do that thing, these years are well and profitably spent. I have always looked on the college course as the time when, by a process of experiment, the choice of a life-work and a dedication to it can and ought to be made. But such a choice comes earlier to some, and to some later or never. Now, what are our educational institutions doing to aid the youth of the land in this momentous decision? What are we doing to lead our pupils to high aims, to inspire them with worthy and great purposes?

I am aware of the many injunctions against ambition, but I still claim that in the good sense of the word, in the meaning which is now commonly accepted, there is no more important work for us teachers than the development in those who come under our charge of worthy and great purposes, aims or ambitions, whichever you may choose to call them. We should try to cultivate in them the spirit of enterprise, the courage to undertake great things, the patience to struggle long for great results, and the faith which will bear them through to success. It seems to me that there is a possibility of improvement in our work in this particular. We may, I think, do more in this direction than we are now doing. Indeed, I go so far as to believe that in times past we have done more than at present. Our reading books once, if I remember correctly, did contain selections which narrated great achievements and dwelt on the doings of great men. Perhaps the reading books of that day were defective in many particulars, but surely in the feature which I am now considering, in the stimulus which they gave to the ambition and purposes of the young, they were better than what we now have. I have looked over a series of these modern readers and the readings which have for several years been required for admission to colleges, without finding a single selection which in any direct and open way gives encouragement to greater or worthier purposes. They may be so chosen as to illustrate in the best manner the many sides of literature as an art, but if they contain any incitement to higher ideals of life or loftier purposes, it is so deeply veiled as to be unrecognizable. In the early days of our Republic the whole people seemed to be saturated with the Lives of Plutarch. Our orators drew their illustrations and our poets their themes from the worthies of Greece and Rome. Patriotism and love of country were viewed as the Romans saw them. The letters in the public press were signed with

Latin names. There was, from this familiarity with Plutarch's writings, a distinct inspiration to higher aims and greater undertakings. But in time the fashion changed. The Greek and Roman heroes were left behind, the Latin signatures disappeared and the great men of our own early history became the theme of our praise. Early biographies of the revolutionary heroes were perhaps more given to panegyric than to searchings for fact. The art of writing biography was, to be sure, but little developed; but the spirit in which these lives were written was right,—it was to emphasize what was great and worthy of imitation and to neglect what was trifling and contrary to the tone and tendency of the whole. I have no doubt that these biographies have inspired many a youth to great life-purposes. And I think they were good works of art. What should we think of a painter who portrayed all the minute imperfections in a portrait, or a sculptor who chiseled in all the wrinkles and blotches? We ought to see these men as they were when they did the great things for which we honor them. Yet this method of writing biography has been supplanted by another which claims to give the real hero, by dissecting him and revealing all the parts in their dire hideousness, and which seems to aim to show how much like ordinary men these great men were. It is something of an indication of the spirit of our times that these anatomical biographies seem to be widely read and enjoyed. I protest that they do not show the men as they were. Errors in perspective are as fatal to a landscape as errors in drawing forms, and any biography which makes prominent the littleness of a great man must approach caricature.

I may bring forward here another subject which has a bearing not only on the set purpose which I am now discussing, but also on the moral standards of which I have spoken. I mean the use of the Bible in our schools.

As to vastly the greater part of this book all men are agreed; as to certain minute parts, they disagree. To spare the scruples of the extremely few, or to avoid discussion and have peace, or because here and there a teacher did not use the book wisely—for some such reasons as these, (for I deny that the majority of any community objects to the use of the Bible because they believe it to be false or its teachings pernicious), for some such reasons as these this book which has established the moral standards of the civilized world and steadily improved them, which is a classic in all European languages, which is quoted in literature more than any other book and is therefore the most essential of all books to an understanding of literature, has been banished from many of our schools. No one can deny that the regular reading from it had a tendency, whether this tendency was strong or not, to establish higher moral standards. And in high ideals of life and service what book has equaled it? And with these high ideals, it gives the encouragement to work and bear with patience that a great end may be accomplished. It holds out hope to him who sees the ideal but hesitates to venture. It is an inspiration to every one whose aims are right.

History and its forerunner, legend, are the great sources from which nations draw their models of heroism and greatness, and of both these we are too young to have any store. I fear our method of teaching the history of the United States does not lend itself to the purpose which we now have in mind. A cursory examination of some of the text-books used does not lead me to expect much help from this quarter. We are then, I fear, reduced to that teaching and influence which come from the good teacher. I need not do more than name Arnold of Rugby and Mark Hopkins to convince you that teachers may give the inspiration of which I am speaking. High minded men, conscious of their great

opportunity, controlled by a sense of their high duty, they seemed to give every one who listened to them an impetus toward higher responsibilities and greater achievement. I have no doubt many of us could name men who, perhaps in a smaller measure, have had the same influence on students. I have stated my belief that a fixed purpose is of the highest importance to a student —let me add that I hold the teacher who can and does inspire his students with high aims and resolves, to be the most valuable of his kind. There is no adequate measure of his value.

Such influence as I have asked for is evidently outside of most of our teaching. It comes from the more intimate contact of student and teacher. It is well nigh impossible where teachers deal with large classes in our crowded schools, but is of such extreme value that I urge that it be kept in mind.

Whether education does lead to success has always been a question. Whether a general education such as is given by our schools and colleges is necessary or advantageous to those who are preparing themselves for the practice of a profession, whether there is a limit up to which a man ought to study and beyond which he should produce,—such questions as these are most practical and important. To many of them we are not yet able to give a certain answer; the statistics are not extended enough or our experience is not wide enough. Each one must consider all the facts already known, and decide each individual case on its own points.

On the other hand, to other questions the answer is taking definite form. Thus the opinion of the men best qualified to judge is that for those who are to take up the study of medicine, the time spent in preparation for this study in subjects more or less general and liberal is profitably expended; and the strongest of the medical schools are now demanding, or are preparing to demand

in the near future, four years of work in some college or scientific school between graduation from a high school and admission to the medical school. This is but a part of the more general movement in the medical profession to raise its standards,—a movement which means much for the well-being of the people and which indicates in unmistakable terms that among the leaders of the medical profession it is believed that general education continued until about the age of twenty-two, and special technical education carried on for four years more, or until the age of twenty-six, conduce to success in the practice of medicine.

In the legal profession a similar movement is going on, although it has not reached as large dimensions as has the movement in the medical profession. In both professions it used to be the custom for young men to study their profession in the offices of practitioners, in other words to serve apprenticeship, and in both professions the recognition is general that the systematic study in the school is more beneficial or more conducive to success than the old apprenticeship system. The standards of admission to the bar are steadily going upward, or in other words, the value of general and special education for the law is more and more generally recognized.

In the ministry I know of no wide-reaching change in regard to a recognition of the value of education. The demand in all the churches has been for more and better educated ministers. If I may judge from the fact that ministers in large cities, and especially in the large and important churches, are as a rule men of college education as well as theological education, there would seem to be a full recognition of the value of wide and liberal education in the ministry. We should not lose sight of the further fact that perhaps nine-tenths of the colleges in the land were founded by ministers of the Gospel primarily to educate men for the ministry.

As to the engineering professions, and other scientific callings, the general consensus of opinion seems to be that a liberal education before undertaking the engineering studies is not on the whole necessary or expedient. Indeed, the scientific schools usually admit students with somewhat less preparation than is required for admission to colleges,—a condition of things which is duplicated in many foreign countries, and for which it is difficult to find any rational grounds. If there is a basis in the nature of men for fixing the age at which the student shall pass from the stricter discipline of the high school to the freer life and more independent choice of studies of the college, as I believe there is, I do not see why the student should go from the high school to the scientific school a year or two years earlier than he would go to the college. The engineering profession, then, while it recognizes the value of education up to the age of twenty-two or three years, has not shown any appreciation of its value beyond that age.

We come here to a very difficult question, one which is just now receiving considerable attention. Does a college education conduce to success in commercial life? Or would the young man who is prepared for admission to college be, on the whole, ultimately more successful in business if he devoted the next four years to liberal study in a college than he would if he went into business life at once? The question is difficult because the terms used are not defined. What is meant by success in the commercial world? Does it mean simply the winning of a fortune in the honest ways of trade? If so, how much of a fortune and in what time? Or does it mean, as it means in the professions, gaining a certain reputation and esteem in the eyes of one's fellows? The rating of a merchant or manufacturer is easy to obtain, but whether his career has been such that we teachers can hold him up to our pupils as an example is a different

matter. Are we to take into our computations every man who enters a store or a counting house or a manufactory? They all, doubtless, have an ambition of some kind, and few of them look to remaining all their lives in the lowest grades, through which they must enter, if they enter at all. Then consider the extremely large percentage of those who become proprietors who fail financially. Again consider the specializations of the business world and how difficult it is for a man who has been trained in one branch of business to find openings in another.

I am not inclined to class the work on railroads with the pursuits which are usually called commercial; it seems to me to be comparable to the military service, where promotions depend more on the vacancies above than on a man's ability. In the professions we can with some certainty predict of a young man who has certain qualities that he will, if not gain great wealth, at least win a standing with the others of his profession which is success. I am in doubt whether this is true in business. Again, I do not believe any amount of financial support can give a man a high position in a profession unless he at the same time has first-class ability; while in the business world financial support has the greatest influence. It may not carry a man to the highest position in the business world, but it does lift him out of all the early struggles and give him an immense advantage over those who lack it.

I bring forward all these questions to show how difficult it would be to give a definite answer to the main question if we knew all the facts, of which unfortunately we are almost entirely ignorant.

The statistical method of investigation fails entirely because it is a comparatively recent thing for young men who look forward to a business career to go to college. Probably even now but few young men who intend to

go into business go to college except those who have ample financial support—a class which has hardly held its own in the professions. If they succeed in business, their success may perhaps be attributed to their money rather than to their education. However the idea of giving business men a high education is so novel, and the number who have been educated is so small, that any examination into the numbers who have succeeded and failed is simply futile.

Of the four requisites to success which I have named, I have no doubt the third and fourth, "fixed moral principles" and "a set purpose," are as effective in bringing about a worthy success in business life as they are elsewhere. As to the other two, knowledge and mental training, I hold there is no statistical method of determining their value, and, if there were such a method, the facts on which to base a decision are not sufficiently numerous. We have only *a priori* considerations to guide us. If commercial life requires wide knowledge, surely this, like the knowledge required by the lawyer and the physician, can be given more quickly and surely in the educational institution than in the hurry and bustle of practical business life. If commercial life requires trained and quick-acting minds, *probably* the training can be given in the schools and colleges to business men more quickly and surely than it can be gained by experience. This, I hold, is all we can say as to this question now. If successful business men continue to send their sons whom they intend to put into business life to college, perhaps in another generation we shall have facts on which to base a judgment. Meanwhile the educational institutions will probably modify their teaching or enlarge it to conform to what seems to be the best course of study for those who look forward to mercantile pursuits, believing, as did John Knox, that "every scholar is something added to the riches of the commonwealth."

It is one of the difficulties of our profession that our results are so distant. We educate now; the results of our work are not fully evident for a generation. Are we producing men and women who can do the work of the future? Who can tell what the problems of the future will be? We are sure of but one thing, that the future will have its own demands. These, so far as education and training go, we must meet now. Our responsibility is momentous. But when I consider the splendid development of our educational institutions of all kinds and the appreciation of education which seems to increase year by year and day by day, my hope for our future and my faith that the men of that day will be equal to the demands on them is renewed and strengthened.

The Treasurer of the Association, Mr. George N. Carman, of Chicago, submitted his report:

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand, March 29, 1901	$76.39	
Fees since March 24, 1901	216.00	
Total receipts for the year		$292.39

DISBURSEMENTS.

Printing Proceedings of 1901	$105.65	
Printing, stationery, and postage	10.45	
Expenses of Executive Committee	19.30	
Total expenditures for the year		$135.40
Balance on hand, March 28, 1902		$156.99

The President then appointed the following committees:

1. To determine the time and place of the next meeting of the Association: President Jos. Swain, Principal E. W. Coy, President J. H. MacCracken.

2. To nominate officers: President A. S. Draper, Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, Principal C. G. Ballou.

3. To audit the Treasurer's report: Principal F. L. Bliss, Professor C. E. St. John, President C. L. Mees.

The subject announced for discussion at the morning session was "Small High Schools in Large Cities."

PRESIDENT CHAPLIN:

Too late for us to secure any one in his place, Superintendent Cooley of Chicago informed the Secretary that he not only could not be present but that he had not written a paper. However, I hope that the other gentlemen will be willing to discuss the subject.

I have the pleasure of introducing to you Principal E. W. Coy of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati.

PRINCIPAL COY:

I am placed in a very peculiar position here today in that I have to discuss a paper that has never been written. That requires a kind of genius that I hardly think I possess.

I wrote Superintendent Cooley asking him what line of discussion he would follow, so that I might be prepared to discuss his paper. He replied that he did not know, so I do not know. We are then to have the play of Hamlet with Hamlet in Chicago instead of in Cleveland.

Now I am in favor, I will say at the outset, of large high schools in large cities. It is very true that these terms are somewhat elastic, and it would not be possible for me to define what we mean by large cities or large high schools in such a way that all would agree upon the definition. So I will not attempt to make a definition.

There is one consideration in favor of large high schools in large cities, and that is the one that grows out of the question of expense. This consideration should, I think, be a controlling one. Of course, there will have to be a limit to the number of high schools in any given

city. You cannot place a high school at every man's door. It would not be desirable, if you could. The expense of public education has grown to be so great and is so rapidly growing greater year by year, that we ought not to do anything that will increase this expense, unless we are sure that we are going to add greatly to the efficiency of the work. The public high school must rest upon public approval and we must be careful to avoid any policy that will lead to a forfeiture of that approval. I was told the other day by a gentleman who recently visited New York to investigate the schools of that city that it took one million dollars a year to provide for the natural increase of teachers in that city. This annual increase of teachers is equal to about half the entire teaching force of Cleveland or Cincinnati. So you will see at once that there is an immense expense in this matter of public education. And the public are going to demand better service year by year in the public schools, and the only way to get better service is to pay better wages and so increase the expense.

Now, if we are going to establish small high schools scattered around over the large cities, we are going to increase immensely the expense of running the high schools of these cities. Therefore, I think the better way is to have a few large high schools properly situated in these large cities. The expense of the high school is partly in the building, but very largely in the equipment, the laboratories, reference libraries, etc., and if we are going to establish in a city ten or twelve small high schools, we must have ten or twelve separate buildings, we must have ten or twelve laboratories, physical, chemical and biological, with apparatus and reference libraries in each one, costing for each nearly as much as the equipment for a large high school would cost. So for this reason if for no other the proper policy is to have a few large high schools to accommodate the pupils of the large cities.

There is one other thing to be considered. I know it is true that the attendance in the high schools varies greatly in proportion to the ease of access to the school. If a new high school were built here in Cleveland, for instance, some distance from any of the other high school buildings, there would immediately be a large increase in the high school attendance for the city. This is due in part to the expense of getting to school when the school is situated at a distance.

I think that every city ought to have some arrangement at certain hours of the day for carrying pupils to and from these high schools. I do not know whether this has ever been done, but I believe that it is entirely practicable. It would be cheaper for the city to pay something towards the expense of this transportation to large high schools than to attempt to erect and equip many high school buildings in the different parts of the city. So I say for that reason if for no other that the policy ought to be to have a limited number of large high schools, well supported and well equipped with laboratories, reference libraries, etc. The community, I believe, would not stand the expense of equipping ten or twelve small high schools when three or four might be equipped better with less cost. So I say large high schools for large cities.

THE HIGH SCHOOL PROBLEM.

BY PROFESSOR C. M. WOODWARD, OF WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

The problem of city high schools is a very important one for every large city,—it is a vital one for St. Louis today. The people of the city believe in education; they are loyal to the schools; they patronize the public schools;

yet the high school attendance is abnormally small. In justice to the people of the city I wish to make plain some of the reasons for this. This explanation will lead directly up to a definite and very convincing argument in favor of relatively small high schools. In what follows I omit all reference to colored children and colored schools. My argument applies to them with double force, and I shall consider that branch of my subject elsewhere.

The high school attendance in St. Louis is small for three reasons:

1. First because the preparatory course beginning at the age of six, covers "normally" nine years. The first year is devoted to kindergarten training; then follows a prescribed course of study arranged for eight years. A careful comparison of ages with grades shows that during the five years following the kindergarten the majority of the pupils lag behind the prescribed course of study, i. e., they increase in years more rapidly than they mount the grades. During the last three years, in consequence of the withdrawal of the laggards, or a relatively lighter demand, they mount the grades more rapidly than they increase in years. Hence the pupils who go to the high school enter at about the "normal" age of 15; i. e., 15 years and 6 months.

In most cities the district school course, counting from six years, is only eight years long, so that the "normal" age of entering the high school is 14; in point of fact 14½ years. I am convinced that this abnormal length of the preparatory course partly explains the small attendance at the St. Louis High School.

I do not wish to be understood as saying that a year, or a fraction of a year, is wasted either in the kindergarten during the child's seventh year or in the primary and grammar grades during the next eight years. I wish merely to point out the fact that the St. Louis plan has the effect of reducing the high school attendance below

what it would be if the preparatory school training occupied less time.

If St. Louis is to be compared with other cities, it would be nearer the truth to add the attendance in the eighth grade to the attendance in the high school. This would double the figures.

2. The second reason which has kept down the high school attendance has been the long distance the great majority of the pupils must travel to reach the one central school. By actual count 64%* of the pupils ride in the street cars back and forth, the distance varying from one to five miles. The cost, personal risk, and time of such street-travel prove a serious obstacle to thousands of pupils.

3. The third reason for the relatively small high school attendance lies in the high school course of study. The Central School is maintained as a literary high and normal school. It has done two definite things, and done them steadily and well, viz: It has prepared young men for higher education in college and technical schools, and it has trained young women to teach in the public schools of the city. Both these things are necessary and both have been accomplished with credit. Of course it is not to be inferred from the above that the school has done nothing else but fit boys for college and girls for teaching. Less formal courses of study in letters, mathematics and science are allowed, but they are formed from the courses named more by subtraction than by addition. The attractive features of domestic science and art for girls, and manual training for boys have never been incorporated into the high school curriculum of St. Louis. Hence many boys who craved the one, and girls who fancied the other, have either attended private schools or withdrawn from school altogether.

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*1281 out of 2023.

The effect of the second and third causes is seen also in the extraordinary falling off of boys during, or at the end of, the first year of the high school. Evidently pupils start in at the high school with no definite notion of the course of study and no close estimate of the cost and inconvenience of the double daily journey. Going back six years I find from the Principal's report that:

330 boys who entered in 1895 fell off to 81 in 1896.
353 boys who entered in 1896 fell off to 89 in 1897.
348 boys who entered in 1897 fell off to 79 in 1898.
370 boys who entered in 1898 fell off to 97 in 1899.
326 boys who entered in 1899 fell off to 69 in 1900.

The record of the girls is very little better.

These influences extend to the lower grades. When it is seen and settled that a pupil is not to attend the high school, the conclusion is jumped at that it is less important to complete the grammar school course. We all know how apt children and uneducated parents are to regard a given scheme of study as valuable chiefly because it leads up to another scheme which is an object of desire or ambition. When the desire or ambition for the higher course is wanting, the preparation is regarded as wasted. Hence it follows that the inaccessibility of the Central High School has the effect of cutting down the attendance in the higher grammar grades.

Recalling now the three reasons I have given: The unusual length of the preparatory training; the single central school in a city covering sixty-one miles of area; the lack of certain modern attractive features in the course of study:—I am happy to say that the second and third will disappear within two years. We are preparing to build two more high schools, one north and one south. Each will accommodate some 900 pupils, boys and girls, and each will be provided with the best facilities for manual training and domestic science and art. I have with me the floor plans and speci-

fications of the Wm. McKinley High School. I recommend them as the result of wide comparison and careful study.

The length of the preparatory training is under careful consideration on the part of those able to discuss it intelligently and decide it wisely. Since this paper was presented it has been decided to reduce the preparatory course to one year of kindergarten and seven years of primary and grammar work—eight years in all.

I am now prepared to consider the arguments in favor of numerous small high schools in any large city, instead of one or more large central schools. As I use the word "small" it means a school having about 800 pupils.

The first and great reason for numerous and relatively small schools has already been partly given. I maintain that with numerous small high schools the total high school attendance is greatly increased. If this point can be established no other argument will be necessary. What we want is the greatest possible high school attendance. Given a broad and rational curriculum suited to the demands of the vast army of youth in the city between the ages of 14 and 20, then the larger the proportion in our secondary schools the better for all concerned.

Our experience in St. Louis goes far to prove my point. For several years before the present Central High School building was erected there was room for only the three higher classes in the old building, and the "Junior" or first-year class was provided for in four different district buildings in different parts of the city. Immediately the junior class greatly increased in size. Reports show that for several years that class contained 2.85 per cent of the entire school enrollment of the schools. After the present building was finished and all classes were regularly provided for at the Central, the enrollment of the junior class was only 1.35 per cent,—less than half of what it had been. Many causes combine to produce this

result, as strong elsewhere as in St. Louis. I shall give several, but shall not attempt to decide upon their relative importance.

1. *Cost of Car Riding.*—Thirteen hundred of the pupils of the high school ride in the street cars back and forth. Ten cents per day for 200 days amounts to $20.00 per year per pupil. Thirteen hundred pupils pay $26,000 per year. In ten years these car fares would pay for a well-equipped district high school for 800 pupils.

2. *Personal Danger.*—Street car accidents are not rare in any city. In St. Louis they are distressingly frequent. It is perfectly natural that a parent should always wish that his darling child might attend a school within easy walking distance, and it is quite possible that the personal risk a child must incur in two daily rides should turn the scale against a high school course.

3. *Time Wasted in Street Cars.*—The time spent on the cars and in waiting for cars is a waste for which there is no compensation. Half the Central High School pupils spend an hour or two in the unwholesome atmosphere of street cars instead of taking a short brisk walk in the open air. District high schools can be located at local centers, so as to be within easy walking distance of nine-tenths of their pupils.

4. *The Sense of Proprietorship.*—On the other hand the sense of proprietorship which a neighborhood feels for its own high school enhances its value in the eyes of children and parents. They take pride in its architecture, in its teachers, its appointments, and in the advantages it offers. They champion it, they patronize it. This stimulates the attendance, encourages the completion of the course, and enhances the value of the contributory grammar schools.

5. *A Unit School.*—There is in the construction of great power plants a certain balanced group of parts

which the makers call a "unit," and they stand ready to furnish so many "units." It is the same in the organization of a high school. There is an economical limit to the size of a school which may be called "small." It should be large enough to fully utilize an individual set of appliances, but not large enough to require their duplication. For instance, a single botanical laboratory and a single teacher would suffice for a school of 800 pupils. The same is true for zoology, chemistry, physics, and physiology. The same is true for a work shop, a cooking room, a drafting room, an art room, etc. A school of 800 boys and girls makes a convenient "unit." A school of 1200 would require that all such laboratories and shops be duplicated and left only partly used. The "unit" is smaller in the case of a manual training high school than in a classical school.

6. *Smaller Schools are Attractive to Pupils.*—In smaller schools a larger per cent of pupils takes part in public exercises, in athletics, in school club-work of a desirable kind. School excursions are better managed and more generally useful. School honors are relatively more numerous. Hence such schools, other things being equal, are more attractive to pupils.

6. *Smaller Schools are Attractive to Teachers.*—Positions for teachers are also more attractive. There are relatively more principals, more heads of specific departments. When there is but one teacher of chemistry, he feels inferior to none. When there are three teachers of chemistry in one school, two of them occupy subordinate positions.

8. *No Divided Responsibility.*—A single man can discipline and supervise carefully not more than 1,000 pupils of high school grade. If the school is larger, he must have an assistant or vice-principal or a superintendent over a part of the school, and at once there is a

divided responsibility, and we all know that both in the school at large and in a department a divided responsibility is an evil.

9. *Adaptability.*—A district high school may take on some peculiar feature due to its peculiar environment. A principal should study his patrons as well as his pupils, and make sure that the education and culture the children receive or acquire touches their home lives and their parents' interests and sympathies in the manner most profitable for both parents and children.

10. *Emulation.*—With numerous district high schools a wholesome and generous emulation may be aroused between them. Reciprocal courtesies may be extended; exhibits may be compared; competitive class examinations may be given; friendly contests of strength and skill in athletic games and field sports may be held; all these if properly conducted contribute to a desirable *esprit de corps,* which reacts favorably upon the schools and neighborhoods. These reasons, while they admit of elaboration, are here stated as briefly as possible, as becomes one who comes in third in a discussion.

Per Contra—In Favor of Large Central Schools.—There are some arguments in favor of large central schools. The buildings and public exercises can be more imposing; their libraries can be larger. In the case of branches of study not in great demand, reasonably large divisions of students can be maintained with economy. This last reason is sufficiently strong to justify, in a central school for example, an opportunity for the study of Greek, for which the demand is very limited in every city and apparently growing smaller every year. I have been told that while Boston has twelve or more city high schools, there is but one where Greek is regularly taught, and that such Greek classes are open to all the high school pupils of Boston.

Doubtless a similar plan will be followed in St. Louis. The existing Central will always be the center for classical study; and while the McKinley and the Yeatman may offer Latin, science, and the modern languages with their manual training, probably they will not offer Greek.

Again, a building and appliances for 1,600 pupils would cost less than two buildings and apppliances for 800 pupils each, and the argument should be allowed whatever it is worth in the comparison.

Reviewing the whole ground and considering public policy and the public good, the arguments in favor of small district high schools appear to be overwhelming.

PRESIDENT A. S. DRAPER:

Whether large cities should have many small high schools or a few large ones is a question that I do not feel myself at all fitted to discuss. The only practical experience that I have had in connection with this subject was in this city, where there is one great, strong, central high school. It is such in name and it is such in fact. I suppose now it has some 2,000 students. Since that was established there have been four or five erected in different parts of the city. It was not expected that they would ever reach the proportion of the Central High School, and they probably never will.

Now I should suppose that the experience in working out the high school problem here is pretty much what it has been and what it will be in other growing cities. They will begin with one large, central school, and utilize it, and enrich it, and give it liberal support from the pride they have in it, up to the point where they find that it can no longer accommodate the growing numbers, and then they will begin to build outside. And these high schools will not be prepared to accommodate more than 800 to 1,000 pupils.

I should therefore suppose that the conclusion which the city naturally works out in its experience is by far the better one. And I guess that the experience will commonly be that the city will have one great central high school, as long as it can in any way accommodate its pupils in that school, and then it will begin to erect smaller schools. And probably this is as near a wise course as any we can work out for ourselves.

PRINCIPAL ARMSTRONG:

It is very apparent that each one of us has in mind a large and a small high school of his own town. Perhaps the question ought to have been phrased in such a way that a school of 800 would not be a large school in one city and a small one in another.

Chicago now has fifteen high schools, a large school of about 1,500 pupils and smaller schools of as few as 200. Having had a little experience in both these kinds of schools I can say that one of the greatest differences in them is that of expense. As I remember the figures, it costs in Chicago about $50.52 per year for each pupil in a large high school, whereas it costs somewhere in the neighborhood of $80.00 per year for each pupil in the smaller schools. The reason for this difference is obvious. It is due to the smallness of the classes in certain subjects in the smaller schools. I find, for instance, that in a school of 200 we have a class in Greek in the last year of only two or three pupils, a class in Virgil of from five to ten pupils.

The practical solution of this problem would be to give in these small high schools instruction only in branches where enough students were enrolled to make an ordinary class and to leave the other branches for the larger school.

I think the suggestion was made by some one in the Association, I cannot recall by whom, that the school

course be divided into three parts, a primary school, an intermediate school and a high school, the intermediate school to come between the primary and the high school and to take in possibly the 7th, 8th and 9th grades. I am afraid if such a movement were started it would mean an increase in the number of years that it would take to complete the high school course; but I believe that the intermediate school plan would solve the difficulty best of all.

I believe that Professor Woodward in his argument carried all of us with him so far as the school of from 800 to 1,000 is concerned. I think he has proved his case for the smaller high school. But I want to call your attention to just one point further, which may perhaps be considered in connection with what Professor Woodward has said. I refer to the proper choice of a location. I have in mind an instance which occurred in Muncie, Ind., where the school authorities had a serious problem before them. In a certain part of the city a class of people, mostly foreigners, had settled, who needed the influence of better surroundings. And this is the way in which the school board met the conditions. They located in that wretched quarter the very finest, best equipped school that was in the power of the city to erect. They finished it with all modern appliances and made it an example of neatness and beauty and fitness to its purpose. Well, the effect of it was rather remarkable. At first the scholars came unwashed and untidy as was their custom, but it was not long before they began to partake of the character of the school itself. They came with cleaner hands and faces, they came with better clothes, and very soon there was really a hope for the bettering of the whole district.

It seems to me that often in our large cities we might achieve great results by bringing the high school and all that it stands for into one of these localities, where otherwise good influences will be lacking.

PRINCIPAL BRYAN:

I wish to say just a word with regard to the intermediate schools just suggested. In St. Louis we find the effect of the intermediate school, as also of all branch high schools, is to increase the number of pupils who discontinue their education at an early stage. They seem to feel that this is a stopping place and not the beginning of a course beyond. I have carefully tabulated the results for some years back and find that the number of pupils who drop out at this point is double the per cent of those who drop out the next year following. And I think that is a matter of great importance where it is our desire to encourage the pupils to go on to the end.

PROFESSOR WOODWARD:

The intermediate school has been taken up by the State Association and it has come up here. It is, of course, a very natural suggestion, but I am very much opposed to it and for the reasons pointed out by Principal Bryan, that is, that the pupils will regard the end of the intermediate period as the proper jumping-off place. So it seems to me that the best thing that we can do in a city is to erect two schools of 1,000 each. So far as I can see, the expense incurred per pupil will not be greater for two schools than one, and the two will reach a greater number than one school can reach.

DOCTOR NIGHTINGALE:

It seems to the Board of Education of Chicago that the city has a large number of high schools, because we have fifteen. And yet if we divided the population of the city by fifteen it would give us only one high school for every 120,000 people, and I venture to say that there is not a town or village of 10,000 people in this country that has not a high school. If, therefore, we had

thirty instead of fifteen, we should be better equipped to secure the attendance of the children than we now are, and if we had a high school for every three or four large squares in the city, the high schools would be still better attended. Where the pupils have to go from one to two miles and pay the cost of transportation, it becomes very burdensome to the poorer class of people, even to the lower middle class. And while I would not favor high schools in any city, small or large, for the purpose of increasing the expense of education, still I think that the school of 500 is better than one of 1,000 and I do not think that any person in this Association would differ with one who believes that two schools of 1,000 each would bring better results than one of 2,000. I am glad to learn that there is a spirit throughout the country to increase the number of high schools. The day of opposition to them has passed. They have come to stay. A high school education in the near future will be considered of equal importance with the common school education of twenty years ago.

There are perhaps three out of Chicago's fifteen high schools that have from 275 to 350 pupils; there are seven out of the fifteen that have about 1,000 pupils; there are two or three that have about 1,100 pupils; and there is one that has about 1,500 pupils. I think that 1,000 pupils should be the maximum. The demand becomes too great when one principal must look after the interests of more than 1,000 scholars.

But I give credit to the wisdom and sagacity of the authorities of any town or village that establishes a high school, even though there should be but 75 pupils for it.

I may state an incident in my own experience. When I came to Lake View in 1874 to commence the high school work there, there were but eight secondary pupils in attendance. That school was actually conducted for two

months with but eight high school scholars. Of course, we gathered quite a large number of primary school pupils together to swell our number. The following September we had fifteen high school pupils, a large class in the eighth grade, and part of the seventh grade pupils. The next year we admitted one more class, which gave us about thirty high school pupils and the eighth grade. In September, 1876, we had a regular high school with sixty pupils. For sixteen years I was principal of that school, and the largest number we have had at any time was 250 pupils. So while I would not particularly favor the small high school in the largest cities, I would favor the establishment of high schools in any village or town, no matter how small might be its attendance in the beginning. It will grow and prosper and be an institution of power in the community in which it exists.

The following persons also took part in the discussion: Professor M. S. Snow of Washington University; Mr. G. A. Locke, of the University of Chicago; Professor C. A. Waldo, of Purdue University; Superintendent N. C. Dougherty, of Peoria, Ill.; President J. R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal School; Mr. Chas. E. Albright, of the Central high school, Columbus, Ohio; and Principal R. R. Upton, of Chillicothe, Ohio.

In accordance with the provisions of the report adopted at the meeting of 1901,[2] the President appointed to the Commission on Accredited Schools the following additional high school members for a period of one year:

Principal Coy of Hughes High School, Cincinnati.
Superintendent Hartwell of Kalamazoo, Michigan.
Principal Bliss of Detroit University School.
Principal Lane of Fort Wayne High School, Indiana.

[2]Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting, pp. 70, 71.

Principal Sewall of the Girls' Classical School, Indianapolis.

Principal French of Hyde Park High School, Chicago.

President Seerley of Cedar Falls Normal, Iowa.

Principal Smiley of Denver, Colorado.

Inspector Aiton of Minnesota.

Superintendent Soldan of St. Louis, Missouri.

Principal Volland of Grand Rapids, Michigan.

The President also reappointed for one year the following representatives of the colleges:

President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska.

President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa.

President J. R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal.

Director G. N. Carman, of Lewis Institute, Chicago.

The meeting then adjourned to 2.30 p. m.

SECOND SESSION, FRIDAY AFTERNOON.

The President opened the second session at 2:30 p. m.

The Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools was presented by the Chairman of the Commission, Dean Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago. (See Appendix for full text of the Report.)

It was moved by Dr. Nightingale that the Report be adopted and printed.

The discussion was opened by President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University.

President Butler said that he was not prepared to discuss the Report in its bearings upon the educational situation as it had shaped itself in the North Central States, but the principles which the Report embodied were so plain that it was possible for him to consider and to emphasize its relation to the general educational movement of the past decade.

It was gratifying to observe that the Commission had not deemed it necessary to begin all over again. They had built upon the work of their predecessors. The present movement had grown out of an intolerable situation at the point of contact between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education, and the resulting unrest had first found definite expression in the paper presented by President J. H. Baker, before the National Educational Association in 1891, on the subject of uniformity in school programmes and in requirements for admission to college.

The outcome of this paper was the appointment of the Committee of Ten. The first act of the Committee of Ten was to make use of brains and funds. It organ-

ized conferences of experts. The experts having called for about fifty per cent more than the secondary schools could accomplish, it was then necessary for the body of trained administrators composing the committee to take the sum total of the reports and to deal with them in terms of educational practicability. But these ninety experts and the Commitee of Ten were unanimous on one point, namely, that if a subject were taught at all it should be taught for pupils who were going to college and for pupils who were not going to college in precisely the same way. This was an emancipation proclamation. It virtually destroyed the term preparatory school. There was no longer any excuse for giving milk-and-water courses to pupils who were not looking forward to a college career.

The secondary school thus became free to do the best it could in its own way, and the college was put in a position to say that it would accept work well done in the schools by any pupil whether he was preparing for college or not. President Butler then sketched briefly the history of the College Entrance Examination Board.

The results of the examination had proved, he thought, the superiority of the Examining Board to the accredited system, for pupils who were recommended by the secondary schools were in many cases unable to pass the examination.

DOCTOR NIGHTINGALE:

We all came here this afternoon not so much to hear and discuss the report of the Commission, as to listen with ears erect to the lucid exposition of the subject by Dr. Butler, as it affects the institutions of the East, which, because of their age and their traditions, are setting, and of right ought to set, an example worthy of consideration and imitation by the newer born schools of the young but puissant West.

I deem it unfortunate that the distinguished representative of Iowa, the Massachusetts of the Mississippi Valley, should have been prevented from occupying the position assigned him, and that it is left to a layman who is resting from his labors, under political necessities, to open this discussion on behalf of the Association. My remarks therefore will be brief and necessarily desultory. A monumental work has been accomplished east of the Alleghenies, and of that work President Butler of Columbia has been the presiding genius, and to his patient yet determined and indefatigable labors we owe largely the promise of national unity upon this great subject which is to bring the secondary schools, especially the public high schools, the colleges of the people, into harmony with the real colleges and universities of the country without jeopardizing the interests of the high schools which must keep close to the people, and without curtailing the work or lowering one iota the standards and ideals of the universities. All great growths are gradual. It took the last half of the nineteenth century to establish the permanency of public high schools. More than ten years ago the first national movement was started to render these schools efficient instruments in a preparation for higher education. There were storm centers in various parts of the country. The agitation has been persistent There have been concessions, compromises and conciliations. Sufficient objections have been raised by conservatives whom Providence wisely places in the arena of every debate, to prevent undue and hasty legislation. We are approaching the beginning of the end. When this North Central Association, covering this vast dominion of the richest and most progressive states of the Union, and representing more than one-third of its entire population, shall have fallen into line by seconding and adopting the spirit of what the New England and Middle States have done, we shall have linked the free public school

system of the nation with the colleges and universities and made possible for our young people an education adapted to individual needs which shall lead them at once into the activities of life or into the halls of our universities where the fittest and strongest may obtain a higher education still.

The report of this Commission which you established a year ago and made permanent is eminently conservative. Those who are most radical in their demands for unlimited elasticity in programmes of study as well as those who still worship the fetich of the fifteenth century can safely unite in their endorsement of this report. It is perfectly safe, there is nothing unique or novel, or, I may say, original in it. It is the result of endless discussion, deliberation and correspondence. Every body of experts who have been making definitions, preparing units of study, and arranging courses in detail, has been consulted and the fruits of their labors are garnered into the storehouse of this Commission.

The herculean task of the Committee of Ten, the recommendations of the Commitee of Thirteen, the results of the Committee of the American Philological Association, of the Modern Language Association, of the American Historical Association, of the Science Department of the National Educational Association, of the Mathematical Association, as well as and especially the exhaustive conclusions of the Examining Board of the Middle States and Maryland, have been incorporated in this report. It only remains for us to adopt it in its entirety, put it into practical operation, amend, modify and enlarge it as circumstances require, and then when the time is fully ripe to appoint or secure a Commission composed of representatives of the New England Association, that of the Middle States and Maryland and of the North Central and Southern States, to formulate a report that shall have force and efficacy throughout the length

and breadth of the nation. I can conceive of but one point of difference, and upon this we can agree to disagree, and with no fatal effect upon the national idea. In the East it may be considered necessary to subject candidates to an examination to test their powers of attainment and their ability for advancement. In the Central and far West, the plan, which has met with increasing and gratifying success, will still be insisted upon, that colleges must accept closely guarded certificates from carefully inspected schools. This Association and all associations of colleges and secondary schools will demonstrate their right to permanent existence only when they shall bring into perfect harmony of thought and purpose, those schools which end where the colleges begin. The present is full of promise: great advancement has been made. "Nulla vestigia retrorsum" should be our motto, even though we rise, "ad astra, per aspera."

High schools are multiplying, they are growing stronger, public opinion is being crystallized in their favor, and sometime during this century the better class of them will relieve the colleges of much of the work now done in the first two years and make them in fact, as many are now only in name, true universities.

This report should be adopted, we cannot afford to postpone. If there are radical differences of opinion among us let us settle them today. We are not pioneers in this work. We constitute the rear guard, and there is even now a great gap between us and those next in advance. Let us be willing to follow where others have blazed the way and planted the great hives of educational industry, and educational individualism. Perfection is unattainable. There will always be problems to solve, tasks to accomplish, plans to formulate. What we consider radical today will be conservative tomorrow, and what is conservative today the wildest educational schemer did not dream of a decade ago. The best work

this Association ever did was the establishment of this Commission. Its members have been faithful servants, they have labored with no hope of reward but your approval. Grant them this by the adoption of this report and bid them go on with an altruistic spirit until there shall be in the United States a unified system of educational requirements and educational equivalents that shall give to every honest boy and every ambitious girl an opportunity to secure all the intellectual and moral power, along the lines of his natural endowments and his acquired ability, that is possible under the laws of mental reciprocity.

PRESIDENT J. H. BAKER, of the University of Colorado, said that he believed in the Report and hoped that it would be adopted. He was convinced that it was the only basis upon which the North Central institutions could secure unifermity of action. He was interested in the Examining Board and its workings as described by President Butler, but even if it were desirable for this part of the country the plan could not be adopted at present. It was an undertaking of too great magnitude. He hoped that the plan devised by the Commission would be accepted by the Association and put into immediate operation.

PRESIDENT R. D. HARLAN, of Lake Forest University, was of the opinion that the Report was a step in the direction of the examination system. Being a graduate of an Eastern college he had a natural preference for some kind of examination. He hoped that before long the Association might take the further step suggested by President Butler.

PRESIDENT A. S. DRAPER, of the University of Illinois, expressed his regret that President Butler had gone over to the enemy. The teachers of the West had come to look upon President Butler as the upholder in the East of the accredited system. They would be surprised and pained

to learn of his defection. Continuing the discussion President Draper said that if the Report of the Commission was adopted he did not clearly see what was to become of the certificate system, as it was already established in most of the North Central States. The university of Illinois, for example, already employed an inspector to travel about the state, inspect the high schools, ascertain what their courses of work were, how many teachers they employed, and how they were equipped for preparing students to enter the university. He wanted to know whether it was proposed to utilize the work of these inspectors without relieving the state of some of the expense. President Draper also commented on the desire for uniformity which found expression in the Report. He was a little skeptical, he said, about uniformity. There might easily be too much of it. He thought this point ought to be carefully guarded.

Later in the discussion President Draper called attention to a provision in the report that no school should be placed upon the list of schools of highest rank to be approved by the Commission, which had not a staff of at least five teachers. He objected to any specification of the number of teachers on the ground that many high schools with only two or three teachers were able to do excellent preparatory work. To such schools a discrimination based solely on the number of teachers would manifestly be unjust.

PROFESSOR A. S. WHITNEY, of the University of Michigan, explained that the list referred to was a list of schools of the first rank about whose standing there could not be any doubt in the minds of the authorities of any university represented in the Association. It was a common list upon which all could agree. But there was no restraint upon the action of individual universities. Each institution could make up its own private list to suit itself.

PRESIDENT J. R. KIRK moved to amend the clause so that the list would include all high schools having ample equipment. The motion was lost.

DIRECTOR G. N. CARMAN then moved that the clause specifying the number of teachers be stricken out. The motion was carried unanimously.

PRESIDENT DRAPER moved the following resolution: That the adoption of the Report shall not be deemed to bind any universities that have already set up systems of inspection of their own, or to change the status of such universities.

The resolution was adopted by consent.

Among those who took part in the further discussion of the Report were the following: Superintendent N. C. Dougherty, of Peoria, Illinois; Principal T. H. Johnston, of Cleveland; President J. H. Barrows, of Oberlin College; Professor H. C. King, of Oberlin College; Principal E. W. Coy, of Cincinnati; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of Chicago; President W. H. Black, of Missouri Valley College; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland; Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo.

At the close of the discussion the motion made by Dr. Nightingale that the Report be adopted and printed, was carried unanimously.

It was moved by Professor Denney that the delegates to the Joint Committee on Entrance Requirements in English previously appointed by the Association be continued for two years. This motion was carried, as also a motion by Dr. Nightingale that alternative delegates be appointed by the President.[1]

The meeting then adjourned.

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[1] The delegates thus continued are Professor F. N. Scott, of the University of Michigan, and Principal C. W. French, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago. The following were appointed as alternates: Professor M. W. Sampson, of the University of Indiana, and Principal W. J. S. Bryan, of the St. Louis High School.

THIRD SESSION, FRIDAY EVENING.

At the Friday evening session, held in the auditorium of the Chamber of Commerce, the Association was addressed by President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, upon the topic, "The College Problem in the United States." The address was delivered extemporaneously, and no report of it was made. The following extract, however, from President Butler's Annual Report to the Trustees of Columbia University, contains so many of the ideas embodied in the address that it will in some measure serve as a substitute:

The whole tendency of our present educational system is to postpone unduly the period of self-support, and I feel certain that public opinion will not long sustain a scheme of formal training which in its completeness includes a kindergarten course of two or three years, an elementary school course of eight years, a secondary school course of four years, a college course of four years, and a professional or technical school course of three or four years, followed by a period of apprenticeship on small wages or on no wages at all.

Four years is, in my opinion, too long a time to devote to the college course as now constituted, especially for students who are to remain in university residence as technical or professional students. President Patton of Princeton University voiced the sentiments of many of the most experienced observers of educational tendencies when he said that: "In some way that delightful period of comradeship, amusement, desultory reading, and choice of incongruous courses of what we are pleased to call

study, which is characteristic of so many undergraduates, must be shortened in order that more time may be given to the strenuous life of professional equipment." For quite twenty years President Eliot has advocated this view and in arguments which have seemed to me unanswerable, under the conditions existing at Harvard, has urged that the degree of bachelor of arts be given by Harvard College after three years of residence. At Columbia, and elsewhere, the practice of counting a year of professional study as a substitute for the fourth or Senior year of the college course has in effect established a three-years' college course for intending professional and technical students. The degree has been withheld until a year of professional study has been completed, in deference to tradition rather than from sound educational principle. In this way new conditions have been met without the appearance of shortening the college course. While the policy hitherto pursued in this regard was justified as a beginning toward a readjustment of the relations between the college and the professional and technical schools, it is hardly to be upheld as a final solution of the problems presented. From my point of view it is open to criticism in that it (1) shortens the college course without appearing to do so, (2) divides the interest of the student in a way that is satisfactory neither to the college nor to the faculties of the professional schools, and (3) fails to give the full support to a college course of purely liberal study which is so much to be desired.

There remains a third line of action, namely, that of basing admission to the professional and technical schools of the university upon a shortened course in Columbia College or its equivalent elsewhere. This I believe to be the wisest plan for Columbia University to adopt, as well as the one whose general adoption would result in the greatest public advantage.

One consideration of vital importance appears to have

been overlooked in the numerous discussions of this whole matter, and that is the fact that there is no valid reason why the college course should be of one uniform length for all classes of students. The unnecessary assumption of the contrary view has greatly complicated the entire question, both in the public and in the academic mind. It must be remembered that for the intending student of law, medicine, or applied science who goes to college, three or four additional years of university residence and study are in prospect after the bachelor's degree has been obtained. For the college student who looks forward to a business career, on the other hand, academic residence closes with graduation from college. For the latter class, therefore, the college course may well be longer than for the former. While two, or three, years of purely college life and study may be ample for the man who proposes to remain in the university as a professional or as a technical student, three, or even four, years may be desirable for him who at college graduation leaves the university, its atmosphere, its opportunities, and its influence, forever.

It must be remembered, too, that the four years' college course is merely a matter of convention, and that there are many exceptions to the rule. The Harvard College course was at one time but three years in length, and the collegiate course at the Johns Hopkins University has been three years in length from its establishment. The normal period of residence for an undergraduate at both the English and the Scottish universities is three years. President Wayland, of Brown University, who was in so many ways a true prophet of educational advance, devised a plan for a normal three-years' college course over half a century ago. The question is not so much one of the time spent upon a college course as it is one of the quality of the work done and the soundness of the mental and moral training given. The peculiar service which the college exists to perform may be done in one case in two

years, in another in three, in another in four, and in still another not at all.

Since 1860 the changes in American educational conditions have been revolutionary, and as one result the content of the A. B. degree has been wholly altered and that degree has been elevated, at Columbia College at least, to a point almost exactly two years in advance of that at which it then was. In other words, despite the fact that college admission requirements have been raised and much of the instruction once given in college is now given in the secondary schools, particularly the public high schools, the bachelor's degree has been held steadily at a point four years distant from college entrance, with the result that the average age of college students at graduation has greatly increased. Since 1880 the average age of the students entering Columbia College has increased exactly one year, and while no adequate statistics for 1860 are available, it appears to be true that the average age of admission in 1880 was one full year higher than in 1860. The Registrar has made a careful examination of the official records, and reports that in Columbia College we are demanding two years more of time and work for the degree of bachelor of arts than was required in 1860, and one year more of time and work than was required in 1880. President Hyde of Bowdoin College has recently said that "Nearly all the distinguished alumni of Bowdoin College graduated at about the present average age of entrance, and were well launched on their professional careers at about the age at which our students now graduate." He cited the cases of Jacob Abbott and William Pitt Fessenden, who were graduated before they were seventeen; Longfellow, who was graduated at eighteen; Franklin Pierce, John A. Andrew, Fordyce Barker, and Egbert Smyth at nineteen; and William P. Frye and Melville W. Fuller at twenty. Instances might readily be multiplied from the records of the American colleges.

The recent statistics compiled by Dean Wright of the Academical department of Yale University, which show the average age of graduation of the members of the class of 1863 at Yale to have been 22 years, 10 months, and 17 days and that of the members of the class of 1902 to have been 22 years, 10 months, and 20 days, point to what appears to be a striking exception, not yet explained, to the general rule.

So long as there were no graduate schools, and therefore no genuine universities, in the United States, and when the bachelor's degree was the highest academic distinction to be gained in residence, it was sound academic and public policy to make the requirements for the degree of bachelor of arts as high as possible. It was the only mark of scholarship that the colleges could give. As a result, the average age at graduation increased. Now, however, conditions have entirely changed. Nearly, or quite, one-half of the work formerly done in college for the degree of bachelor of arts, is now done in the rapidly increasing number of secondary schools, particularly public high schools, and no small part of it is required for admission to college. This does not appear if the comparison be restricted to admission requirements in Greek, Latin, and mathematics; but it is clearly evident when the present admission requirements in English history, the modern European languages, and the natural sciences are taken into account. The standard of scholarship in this country is no longer set by the undergraduate courses in the colleges or by the time devoted to them, but by the post-graduate instruction in the universities and by the requirements demanded for the degree of doctor of philosophy.

These being the undisputed facts, it would appear to be wise, and possible, to treat the length of the college course and the requirements, both in time and in accomplishment, for the degree of bachelor of arts from the

standpoint of present-day needs and the largest social service.

In my opinion it is already too late to meet the situation by shortening the college course for all students to three years, although such action would be a decided step forward so far as the interests of intending professional and technical students are concerned. When President Eliot first proposed a three-years' course for Harvard College, the suggestion was, I think, a wise one. But in the interval conditions have changed again. If we at Columbia should be willing to go no farther than to reduce the length of the college course from four years to three, we should (1) find it impracticable both on financial and on educational grounds to require that course as prerequisite for admission to the Schools of Applied Science, and, possibly, to the School of Medicine, and (2) we should be unable to resist the pressure for further reconstruction and re-arrangement that would be upon us before our work was completed and in operation. My own belief is that Columbia University will perform the greatest public service if it establishes two courses in Columbia College, one of two years and one of four years,—the former to be included in the latter,—and if it requires the satisfactory completion of the shorter course, or its equivalent elsewhere, for admission to the professional and technical schools of the university. By taking this step we should retain the college with its two years of liberal studies as an integral element in our system, shorten by two years the combined periods of secondary school, college, and professional school instruction, and yet enforce a standard of admission to our professional schools which, both in quantity and in quality, is on a plane as high as the Columbia degree of bachelor of arts of 1860, which was recognized as conforming to a very useful standard of excellence. At the same time we should retain the four-years' course with all its manifest advantages and oppor-

tunities for those who look forward to a scholarly career, and for as many of those who intend to enter upon some active business after graduation as can be induced to follow it.

Under such a plan we should have in Columbia College four different classes of students: (1) those who were taking the shorter course of two years in preparation for a technical and professional course, and who would therefore look forward to a total university residence of five or six years; (2) those who were taking the shorter course of two years but without any thought of subsequent professional or technical study; (3) those who felt able to give the time necessary to take the longer course of four years before entering a professional or technical school; and (4) those who, as now, take the four years' college course without any intention of technical or professional study. The second class of students would be a new and highly desirable class, and would be, for the most part, made up of earnest young men seeking a wider and more thorough scholarly training than the secondary school can offer, but unable to devote four years to that end. The third class of students would be able, by a proper selection of studies in the later years of their college course, either to enter a professional school with advanced standing or to anticipate some of the preliminary professional studies and devote the time so gained to more intensive professional work. Undoubtedly many students who now take a four years' undergraduate course with no professional or technical end in view would take the shorter course, and that only, but on the other hand numbers of students would come to college for a course of two years who when obliged to choose between a four years' course and none at all are compelled to give up college altogether. The final result of the changes would certainly be to increase the total number of students taking a college course of one length or another.

The Dean of Columbia College is of the opinion that such a shortened course of two years as is contemplated by this suggestion could readily be made to include all of the studies now prescribed at Columbia for candidates for the degree of bachelor of arts. This shortened course would, therefore, take on something of the definitiveness and purpose which in many cases the rapid developments of recent years have removed from undergraduate study; for it goes without saying that no effort would be spared to make such a two years' course as valuable as possible, both for intellectual training and for the development of character. The student would be a gainer, not a loser, by the change.

If Columbia College should offer two courses in the liberal arts and sciences, one of two years and one of four years in length, the second including the first, the question would at once arise as to what degrees or other marks of academic recognition would be conferred upon students who had satisfactorily completed them.

Two answers appear to be possible. First, we may withhold the bachelor's degree until the completion of the longer course, and grant some new designation to those who satisfactorily complete the shorter course. This has been done at the University of Chicago, where graduates of the junior college course of two years are made Associates in Arts. Or we may degrade—as it is called—the bachelor's degree from the artificial position in which the developments of the last forty years have placed it, and confer it upon the graduates of the shorter course of two years, and give the degree of master of arts for the longer course of four years The latter alternative would be my own preference. Such a plan would bring the degree of bachelor of arts two years earlier than now and would place it substantially on a par with the bachelor's degree in France, the *Zeugniss der Reife* in Germany, and the ordinary degree in course as conferred by the English and

the Scottish universities. It would also be substantially on a par with the Columbia College degree of 1860.

In this connection it must be remembered that it is not the A. B. degree of today which is so much extolled and so highly esteemed as the mark of a liberal education gained by hard study and severe discipline, but that of one and two generations ago. The A. B. degree of to-day is a very uncertain quantity, and time alone will show whether it means much or little.

The degree of master of arts is an entirely appropriate reward for the completion of a college course, under the new conditions proposed, four years in length. This degree has been put to many varied uses and has no generally accepted significance. In Scotland it is given in place of the degree of bachelor of arts at the close of three very short years of undergraduate study. In England it signifies that the holder is a bachelor of arts, that he has lived for a certain minimum number of terms after obtaining the bachelor's degree, and that he has paid certain fees. In Germany it is usually included in the degree of doctor of philosophy. In the United States the degree is more often than not a purely honorary designation; although in recent years the stronger universities have guarded it strictly and now grant it for a minimum period of graduate study for one year in residence. At the meeting of the Association of American Universities in February last there was a very interesting discussion on the subject of this degree, and the divergence of policy in regard to it was made plainly evident As an intermediate degree between those of bachelor of arts and doctor of philosophy, that of master of arts has been and is very useful at Columbia. It marks the close of a period of serious resident graduate study, and is an appropriate reward for the work of those university students who have neither the inclination nor the peculiar abilities and temperament to fit themselves for successful examination for the degree

of doctor of philosophy. At the same time it must be admitted that the rapid development of the elective system and the widely different standards of the scores of colleges from which our graduate students come, have almost wiped out the distinction between the Senior year in Columbia College and the first year of graduate study. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the fixing of the degree of master of arts at the close of a four-years' under-graduate course would involve no real alteration in the standard required on the part of those coming to Columbia from other institutions. For students of Columbia College it would bring the degree within reach after four years of residence instead of five.

In the case of candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy, the completion of the longer college course, or its equivalent elsewhere, would of course be required, and also the same minimum period of post-graduate resident study as now. There would be no alteration in the time necessary or the standard now set for that degree, which as conferred at Columbia is recognized as conforming to the highest and best standards.

With the courses in applied science and in medicine fixed at four years, to base them upon a two years' college course would be to elevate them to a proper university standard and to ensure the best possible class of students. The Law School and the professional courses in Teachers College could easily be put upon the same basis.

Reflection and a careful study of the facts will make it apparent that these suggestions are less radical than seems to be the case on first sight. They at least offer a solution to a generally recognized problem, one which has often been pointed to but toward the solution of which little progress has been made. I shall seek an early opportunity of bringing them before the University Council and the several Faculties for full consideration and discussion.

Should Columbia University adopt such a policy as has been outlined, and should the same or a similar policy commend itself to the governing bodies of any other American universities whose problems are similar to ours, a development already in progress throughout the country would be hastened. As the public high schools multiply and strengthen they will tend more and more to give the instruction now offered in the first year, or first two years of the college course. In so far they will become local colleges, but without the characteristic or the attractiveness of student residence. Furthermore, the time would sooner come when colleges, excellent in ideals and rich in teaching power but without the resources necessary to carry on a four years' course of instruction satisfactorily, will raise the requirements for admission to a proper point and then concentrate all their strength upon a thoroughly sound course of two years leading to the bachelor's degree. More depends upon the strict enforcement of proper standards of admission to college than is generally believed; that is at present the weakest point in college administration. The general standard of college education in the United States would be strengthened more if the weaker colleges would fix and rigidly enforce proper entrance requirements and concentrate all their money and energies upon two years of thorough college work than if they continue to spread a college course over four years with admission secured on nominal terms or on none at all.

The policy outlined would, I think, largely increase the number of students seeking a college education, and many who might enter one of the stronger colleges for the two years' course would remain for four years.. The loss of income due to the dropping out of students after two years of residence would be more than made good very soon by the large increase in college attendance.

As the system of higher education in the United

States has developed it has become apparent that we have substituted three institutions—secondary school, college, and university—for the two—secondary school and university—which exist in France and Germany. The work done in the United States by the best colleges is done in France and Germany one-half by the secondary school and one-half by the university. The training given in Europe differs in many ways from that given here, but from an administrative point of view the comparison just made is substantially correct. The college, as we have it, is peculiar to our own national system of education, and is perhaps its strongest, as it certainly is its most characteristic, feature. It breaks the sharp transition which is so noticeable in Europe between the close surveillance and prescribed order of the secondary school and the absolute freedom of the university. Its course of liberal study comes just at the time in the student's life to do him most good, to open and inform his intelligence and to refine and strengthen his character. Its student life, social opportunities, and athletic sports are all additional elements of usefulness and of strength. It has endeared itself to three or four generations of the flower of our American youth and it is more useful today than at any earlier time.

For all of these reasons I am anxious to have it preserved as part of our educational system and so adjusted to the social and educational conditions which surround us that a college training may be an essential part of the higher education of an American whether he is destined to a professional career or to a business occupation. It seems to me clear that if the college is not so adjusted it will, despite its recent rapid growth, lose its prestige and place of honor in our American life, and that it may eventually disappear entirely, to the great damage of our whole educational system.

At the conclusion of the address the following resolution, prepared by President A. S. Draper, was adopted by unanimous vote of the Association:

RESOLVED: That the Association expresses to President Butler of Columbia University deep appreciation of that generous and enthusiastic spirit which has led him so frequently to make liberal gifts of his learning to the educational work of the west, and particularly thanks him for the illuminating and convincing address before the Association at this meeting. The members of the Association also take the occasion to express their gratification upon his call to the presidency of Columbia University and would gladly have their congratulations upon securing so gifted an executive conveyed to the University and made known at the approaching inauguration.

The Association then adjourned to the library of the Chamber of Commerce, where there was an informal reception to President Butler and the officers and members of the Association.

FOURTH SESSION, SATURDAY MORNING.

The Association was called to order at 9:30 a. m. by President Chaplin.

The session was opened by the reading of papers.

SHALL THE STATE RESTRICT THE USE OF THE TERMS "COLLEGE" AND "UNIVERSITY?"

BY PRESIDENT A. S. DRAPER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

There is no other one word which goes so far to indicate the history and to express the purposes of a free state as the word education. There may be a wide difference between a nation and a state. One may grow naturally enough out of barbarian life without intellectual or moral self-activity, but the other must be created through the affirmative action of the people, by the deliberate grant of the common power, through conventions marked by intelligence and moving in the light of world-progress. A state is the product of a very considerable intellectual and moral advance: its purpose is not mere security from peril, but the assurance of the just rights and the free opportunities of each individual and of the healthful onward march of the whole mass.

Then, on the face of things, it would seem obvious enough that a state may do even more; that it is bound to do anything which it thinks will promote the purposes for which it exists. In all bodies of people there are some who have to be controlled, restrained, and punished.

Standards must differ widely in different peoples. Where the ideals are the highest the policies must be the most aggressive. It seems difficult to say why a state which exists for moral right and for mental progress is not bound to stop any wrongful or inconsiderate action which deceives its people and thwarts its purposes, quite as much as a tribe or a nation which exists for security alone is bound to stop crimes against person and property.

Colleges and universities are the instruments of free states. They are complicated and costly instruments. Their faculties are constituted of specialists of liberal training and large experience; their equipments are extensive and expensive; their history, their traditions, and the work of their graduates give them character and renown. They are ordinarily continuing and permanent institutions. Their commendations are of recognized value. The very name "college" or "university" conveys meanings which are significant of importance and well understood among intelligent people. And this is the very reason why they have been so much employed by miscellaneous institutions which exist for commercial gain alone. The question is whether such unwarranted use should be prohibited.

Probably this question could not arise in governments which are strongly centralized, for no one would think of employing these names except by the express approval and leave of those governments. Is the free appropriation of sacred things to commercial pursuits one of the privileges which specially inheres in a democracy?

So far as I know there has been but one attempt by an American legislature to limit the use of the terms "college" or "university." That attempt is therefore noteworthy. In the State of New York the legislature of 1892 passed a new university law, and carefully tucked away in the inner recesses of a statute drafted by Melvil Dewey,—an educational artist who never hesitated at an

undertaking because its character was unique or its propositions were heroic,—was this rather drastic and aggressive section:

"33. *Prohibitions.* No individual, association or corporation not holding university or college degree-conferring powers by special charter from the legislature of this state or from the regents, shall confer any degrees, nor after January 1, 1893, shall transact business under, or in any way assume the name university or college, till it shall have received from the regents under their seal written permission to use such name, and no such permission shall be granted by the regents, except on favorable report after personal inspection of the institution by an officer of the university. No person shall buy, sell or fraudulently or illegally make or alter, give, issue or obtain any diploma, certificate, or other instrument purporting to confer any literary, scientific, professional or other degree, or to constitute any license, or to certify to the completion in whole or in part of any course of study in any university, college, academy or other educational institution. Nor shall any person with intent to deceive, falsely represent himself to have received any such degree or credential. Counterfeiting or falsely or without authority making or altering in a material respect any such credential issued under seal shall be a felony, and any other violation of this section shall be a misdemeanor; and any person who aids or abets another, or advertises or offers himself to violate the provisions of this section, shall be liable to the same penalties."

Although apparently there has been no other attempt to restrict the use of the terms "college" and "university" there has been much discussion and some little progress towards the state control of institutions which assume to confer scholastic degrees. In several other states there have been movements against the conferring of degrees except under the authorization of the state, and

attempts to fix the minimum limit of endowment, faculty, entrance requirements and course of study, precedent to the grant of authority. But it must be said that legislation in this direction has not so far met with ready or general favor. It has been opposed by interests which either feared its effect upon themselves or misapprehended its purpose and were able to make legislators conclude too quickly that it was aristocratic in its tendency and a needless limitation upon democratic freedom.

As between the two propositions that the degree conferring power must come from and be regulated by the state, and that the use of terms by which institutions are designated may be restricted by the state there is probably no difference in principle, and if they are to be enacted into law elsewhere they may very well go together as they do in the New York statute.

As I understand it, this kind of legislation is intended to remedy two evils which have resulted from our growth in population and in wealth and are the offspring of the educational advance and of rampant commercialism. One is the naked fraud, but poorly disguised, of selling spurious degrees for cash; the other deludes the young or the inexperienced by pretending to do what it is incapable of doing. Men who are responsible for the first are moral criminals, and statutes should make them legal criminals and punish them for it. The degrees of culpability for the second are endless, and the shades of responsibility are infinite. Men sometimes deceive themselves. Some do not know, and some do not care. Some mean well and do ill. They do not see the line between genuineness and pretence, between the real and the spurious. It is said that this misleads the crowd; that it discredits the worthy; that society must protect its members and promote the common welfare by determining by whom and how works of *public* interest shall be carried on, and by

limiting terms of well settled interpretation to the use intended by the very common sentiment.

There are concerns, some of them incorporated under the forms of law, which have no building, no campus, and no teaching staff, and yet which are assuming to confer literary, scientific, and professional degrees for cash; and their transactions are not few in number. They need not take our time; there is no room for a question about them, for the fraudulent intent is clear, and society is bound to outlaw and to punish educational as other frauds.

But what should the state do as to institutions with more or less genuineness of purpose, and more or less ignorance, which are pretending the impossible as a means of livelihood? There are institutions advertising themselves as colleges and universities and assuming to confer degrees, which lack the means to do the work that any intelligent community can accept as the foundation for the academic degrees. What about them? There are concerns with signs which are absurd and amusing. Hard by the deep shadow of one of the most prominent universities of the country I saw recently the glaring insignia which proclaimed two institutions of learning within. One taught blacksmiths, and was a "Blacksmithing University," and the other trained barbers, and was a "'Shaving College." What about such as these and others of the same species, but with less unconscious humor about them?

If it is difficult to make the crowd see the wrong which these things work to some and the demoralization which they bring upon the solid educational work of the country, it will not be necessary to urge that phase of the subject here. We turn at once to the discussion of what course should be taken, and ask whether these matters come within the scope of the lawful action of a democratic state, and if so what is expedient in the premises.

We are upon very solid ground when we accept the

definitions of the American and English Cyclopædia of Law (v. 27, p. 632) as to what colleges and universities are. It defines a university to be "an institution of higher learning consisting of an assemblage of colleges united under one corporate organization and government, affording instruction in the arts, sciences, and the learned professions and conferring degrees." It declares a college to be "an organized assembly or collection of persons *established by law* and empowered to co-operate for the performance of some special function, or for the promotion of some given object which may be educational, political, ecclesiastical, or scientific in its character."

It has been sufficiently held by the American courts and is generally accepted that a college or university cannot do things which are not specifically or impliedly granted in the charter or the act under which it is incorporated, and has no power to confer degrees or to grant diplomas unless the power is expressly given by the legislature.

This is much, for it goes very definitely to the source of the degree-conferring power. It might well be made more of, because it is so much easier to accentuate the powers of legislatures in the minds of legislators and to induce them to fix the terms upon which they will grant the powers of the state than it is to procure the passage of laws making misdemeanors of conduct which does not seem very heinous to the legislative mind. And it must be said that good, strong, affirmative legislation, and much of it, upon the equipment and powers of colleges and universities, upon the conditions precedent to the granting of degrees, would work a very invigorating effect, both directly and by reflex action, upon the educational situation of the country.

But of course this does not meet the question. What is to be done with those who want to follow an educational business for what money there is in it, and who cannot

carry on that business upon a plane to command the approval of the state? What about those whose ignorance, or indifference, or cupidity, leads them to make public pretenses which are impossible and absurd, misleading and demoralizing?

If the state is definitely to assume exclusive authority over the power to confer academic degrees and to prescribe the organization, resources and outfit of colleges and universities, and then to outlaw all concerns which do not meet its requirements, and prohibit them from using the names which it reserves for the institutions which it sanctions it must do more than grant authority to do what it approves; it must stop others from doing, or pretending to do, the same things without its approval. This involves the exercise of what is called the police power.

The police power, its growth, its scope, and its limitations, can only be referred to here. It cannot be discussed, for volumes are inadequate to its comprehensive exploitation. It would be presumptuous even to attempt to define it. The most learned judges and text writers have declared that it cannot be defined. In the most general way it may be said that it is the power which has arisen in organized society to regulate its affairs in the interests of the common welfare and progress. It not only allows; it forbids and punishes. It has enlarged and extended as communities have increased and society has advanced. It goes beyond the punishment of the recognized crimes and concerns itself with the life and health of the citizen, with the enjoyment of private and social life, with the comfort of existence in dense populations, and with the intellectual progress of the mass.

The police power is the trenchant instrument of democracy, and for reasons quite obvious it has had its fullest development and its widest application in this country. The matters upon which it has assumed to act

can hardly be enumerated, but the comprehensiveness of its scope may be indicated by a partial statement of them.

It has undertaken to make dwellings sanitary, and to provide means of escape from fire, to regulate the sale of drinks and to prevent the adulteration of foods, to prevent nuisances and to stop games which are hurtful or demoralizing. It supervises transportation companies, insurance companies, building associations, banks, and the like, and sternly prohibits the carrying on of these businesses except by the leave of the state. It regulates innkeepers, hack-drivers, and auctioneers. It forbids the practice of many of the professions until the candidate has passed such tests as it prescribes. It refuses permission to teach in the schools until the preparation which it exacts has been accomplished. It even assumes to interdict many of the occupations of skilled labor until it places the mark of its approval upon the workman, and it controls many of the ordinary vocations for the sake of the common good.

Under this power it has been held that the state may tear down a house which is going to decay or one which promises to be food for a conflagration; that it may slaughter cattle with infectious diseases; that it may compel vaccination and confine the insane or those afflicted with contagious diseases; that it may restrain vagrants and beggars and drunkards; that it may suppress obscene publications and houses of ill fame; that it may establish the places where and the conditions upon which certain legislative callings may be carried on; and that it may fix the price at which water may be sold by one who has a monopoly of it.

The highest court in the land and by far the most august in the world has held that under the police power a state may regulate and fix the charges which the owners of private property holding themselves out to do a general business may exact of customers who require their service and the use of that property whenever it appears that they

have a monopoly of the business and it has come to be of public interest. The right to regulate and control involves the right to suppress if conditions make it necessary. The Supreme Court has held that a valuable property built up under the protection of the law may be confiscated and destroyed without compensation under the police power of a state after an amendment to the state constitution had made the business carried on in that property unlawful, and this notwithstanding the provision in the Federal Constitution against taking property without due process of law, and the other one against impairing the obligation of contracts. The gist of all this is that when a public interest is involved the legislature may intervene and go all lengths to promote it; that whenever a matter is determined to be of a public as distinguished from a private character the state may do whatever in its judgment may be necessary concerning it.

In a word it may be said that the police power of the state extends to every matter involving the well being of the community whether it be moral or social, industrial, or intellectual and educational.

There are of course limitations upon the exercise of this power. It must not contravene the principles established in the charters of English liberty, and it must not get in conflict with the provisions of our state and federal constitutions. This gives rise to the most intricate legal questions. No law questions have ever so taxed the learning of any court in the world, and, it may be added, have been so safely met, as those which have required the Supreme Court of the United States to determine whether the exercise of the police power in certain cases was in conflict with provisions of the Federal Constitution, and particularly whether it was obnoxious to the civil rights amendments thereto.

Of course the exercise of the police power must be in good faith, and not to gain any fatuous or sinister end.

It cannot be used as an instrument of persecution. One's right to pursue any business he chooses up to the point where it conflicts with the common welfare is fundamental, but everything hurtful to the *public* interests may be restricted and prohibited. Whether a statute invades a fundamental right, whether it helps or hurts the common good, whether it conflicts with any of the provisions of the constitutions are questions for the courts. Therefore the exercise of the police power must rest in the sound discretion of the legislative branch, and must have the approval of the judicial branch of the government. Within these limits it is untrammeled. The courts will uphold the legislative discretion unless it has fallen into fundamental error.

Fortunately in our system the responsibility for public education is with the same authority which is charged with the proper exercise of the police power. Our educational systems are state systems. They are not city, county, town or district systems except as the state legislatures delegate authority to cities, counties, towns or districts. Such delegation of authority may be modified or taken away. The supervision of educational work, the provision and direction of educational instrumentalities, are with the states. These things have never been ceded to the Union. Many of the state constitutions say so. The legislatures and the highest courts in many of the states have said so. The Supreme Court of the United States has said so. The Federal Government may aid and encourage, but it cannot direct or control education in the states. Of course it may and must in the territories. It has never claimed anything else. The Constitution of the United States contains no reference to the matter. That great document is silent upon the subject of first public concern. It is not because the men who framed it were ignorant or indifferent. They were the very best men in the country; half of them were college graduates. It is

because it was deemed best to leave the whole matter with the states, and experience has proved, overwhelmingly, the wisdom of the course. The plan is a wise and beneficent one: it has located authority and responsibility within the popular reach; it has given the educational system its largest opportunities, while it has made it adaptable to the circumstances of all sections of the country.

Educationists of all others should understand this, but the very elect get befogged about it. Last summer when the adverse report of its commitee on a national university was presented to the National Council of Education some of the past-masters of American education became frantic over it. Happily Mr. Carnegie's munificence has relieved the whole situation, made further discusssion of a national university superfluous, and released Congress from the temptation to do much shuffling and prevarication to educational constituents and lifted the courts out of peril of differences with the Council of Education.

It is a power which under our system inheres in the several states. It has never been ceded to the general government and has never been claimed by it. It is a sacred trust which the people have confided in the state legislatures, and which those bodies will neither be allowed to abuse nor divest themselves of, but must administer for the good of all, without fear and without favor.

All this points very conclusively to the undoubted power of the states to do whatever they may think well to uplift and advance education. Nothing which they may do in this connection is likely to impinge upon any of the fundamental rights of man, or to conflict with any of the provisions which the well-being of the common brotherhood and interstate comity have led us to place in the Federal Constitution. There can be no doubt of

the right of any of our states to prohibit the conferring of academic degrees without express authorization, and to restrict the use of names to institutions which it approves and for which it reserves them.

It must be said, moreover, that the state has a responsibility and a duty as well as a power in the premises. Colleges and universities are historic. They have come down to us out of the very dim past. By the common understanding and usage of civilization they are creatures of the sovereign power. Academic, scientific, and professional degrees are things of real value, distinctions obtained by long labor under state supervision and certification. They are authoritative commendations to public confidence; often they grant the state's permission to practice professions; the system is not only to commend attainments and certify scholarship, but to save the public from imposition; they are things in which there is a property value. By the common understanding and usage of civilization degrees can be conferred by colleges and universities alone. Therefore no degrees can be conferred except through the leave of the state, and there are no colleges and universities unless set up or authorized by the state. Then all other institutions calling themselves "colleges" and "universities" and all degrees they confer are in a legal and public sense spurious, and it is the business of a state to use the police power to suppress things which are spurious, in order that they may not mislead the ignorant and seem to lessen the true value of things that are real.

If a man holds himself out to the public to carry on public work the law presumes that he has the skill and ability to carry on his calling, and if he has not he is liable in an action of tort to any who employ him and suffer by his lack of skill and ability. Is not the state remiss if it permits one to impose thus on the public, and does it not render itself in a way a party to the fraud and injury?

There has already been much legislation throughout the country against impure and imitation foods. Oleomargarine, or imitation butter, has in places been altogether prohibited. More generally the use of coloring matter, employed to make people think it was butter, has been prohibited. At the present session of Congress a bill has passed the House and seems likely to pass the Senate laying an internal revenue tax of one-fourth of one cent per pound upon oleomargarine when not colored to imitate butter, and a tax of ten cents per pound when any coloring matter enters into it. The laws have very generally required the vendors of oleomargarine to stamp plainly the true character of the contents upon the package. And all this is not in the interests of health, for it is admitted that oleomargarine is not unwholesome, but in the interest of honesty and fair dealing. It is all done to save the public from imposition, and to protect the dairymen against competition in the dark with an imitation which can be produced at a small part of the cost of the real article. Does not the same principle apply to fraudulent colleges or imitation universities?

Of course there are those who take the view that the function of a state is to assure immunity from hurt to person and to property. They seem to think that the only right of a state is to protect its citizens from aggression. That is not the accepted view in this country. The general view is that it is not only the business of the state to protect the lives, liberty, and property of the people, but also to promote the health, peace, order, morals, and learning of the nation. This it is which, in its public manifestation, distinguishes democracy from the more consolidated forms of government. It is at once the mission and the measure of our democracy. Thank heaven our governmental system is a marching and an advancing one. It was never intended to stand still. Principles, the guides of action, are imbedded in conscience and are

stable, but moral and intellectual life is to move forward and upward. The combined power of the people is to protect it, guide it, and help it on its way.

It goes without saying that it is the function of the state to encourage moral and intellectual self-activity. It is to help on educational enterprises which are meritorious though young and weak. But this does not mean that the state is to have no educational standards, that it is to permit the indiscriminate exercise of that authority of which it is the exclusive source and which it is bound to use with deliberate and sound discretion, or that it is to allow the misappropriation for commercial or other purposes of terms which have come to be well defined, which imply public service, and which can be rightfully applied only to institutions capable of promoting the national ideals and desirous of serving the general ends.

As society grows in volume and advances intellectually the necessity for a larger use of the common power for the common good becomes more imperative. The whole world is relative. Ideals and policies change with conditions. Rural life does not require the same regulative policies that are needed in urban life, for rural life is happpily free from much of the deceit and imposition so rampant in urban life. Newly settled states do not sustain the same regulative policies in education or other matters which the stability and the strength of older states require them to enforce. The advance of states to real statehood, the rise of democracy in structure and in spirit to the point where it can stand strains and gain confidence, where it can suppress the evil and give free flow to the good there is in the lives and souls of the people, is measured by the common understandings which are so well intrenched that they need not be written in the law books, or else by statutes and decisions which its constituted authorities have made States are not comprised exclusively of people who can live in peace and security and grow in

morals and intelligence without any government at all. Government is not a pastime. States must limit and restrict the wrong and set up institutions and point the true way. Learning, the life-blood of democracy, will not flow in the veins of a commonwealth which cannot understand this or is so weak and so lacking in character that it cannot exercise its authority to accomplish these ends.

Then it seems to me that upon the subject under discussion we can come to no other conclusion than that the state should not allow any institution to confer academic degrees except by its express authority, and that it should restrict the use of the terms "college" and "university" to institutions which have the state's authority to confer degrees.

And it would seem also that institutions should not be allowed to appropriate names which belong to all the people. The names of states, or cities, or towns, should not be permitted to be used except by the special leave of the state, or the city, or the town, to which they belong, and perhaps better still they should not be permitted to be applied to institutions other than those which are set up, maintained, and controlled by the state, or city, or town, whose name they would bear. Any other course is misleading, deceives some, and wrongs all, for it gives to a few what is within the proprietary ownership of all.

SHOULD THE USE OF THE TERMS UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE AND SCHOOL BE LIMITED BY LAW?

BY PROFESSOR DUDLEY P. ALLEN, MEDICAL DEPARTMENT, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

The question "Should the Use of the Terms University, College and School be Limited by Law," has been given me by your committee on programme for consideration. I had a short talk with a member of the committee and received from him a note in which he says, "It is better for you to take up the relation of the one to the other and what the state owes to them and they to the state." I shall, therefore, present what I have to say to you along these lines and leave the legal questions, particularly those of a technical sort to my friend, Mr. Hopkins, Dean of the Law School of Western Reserve University.

The subject naturally divides itself under various headings: First, is it desirable for the state to determine the relative standing of universities, colleges and schools? If desirable, in the second place is it practical? Third, if practical, would such a division be legal? In discussing the first proposition, viz., Is such a division of terms desirable? the question cannot be settled wholly along theoretical lines. There are certain practical considerations which are of moment. Of course in thinking of the relations borne in America by the various departments of instruction to each other one naturally compares them with the conditions as they exist in Europe, less perhaps with England than with France and Germany. As you all know Germany has schools first for the instruction of young children; second, those of a more advanced sort, giving instruction in common branches; third the gymnasium, which is a preparatory school, preparing students for study in universities and corresponding in a

degree to the college in America, although giving a less extensive, though undoubtedly a more thorough training; and fourth, the university proper which is made up of four faculties, the philosophical faculty, the theological faculty, the law faculty and the medical faculty. No school in Germany would be considered a university without these four faculties. In addition to these there has been established in Germany what is known as the Realschule or Technical School. It would not be in place to discuss in this paper the relative merits of institutions of learning as they exist in Europe and in this country. According to the standards which exist in Europe a university is pre-eminently a school in which only advanced instruction is given. No one is admitted to it until he has a thorough preliminary training. According to these standards there is scarcely a university in the United States. Many schools in the United States are called universities, in which the four faculties do not exist. In some of these so-called universities the instruction is decidedly elementary, being by no means equal to that which is given in many institutions which are called colleges. I think one needs but to call to mind the various institutions of learning with which he is acquainted to find that we have many colleges in which is given a certain amount of real university training and many universities in which little is given beyond college training. On the other hand, it is imperative that we should consider the history of education in the United States and the method of its development, in order to understand what its future probably will be. The one institution which has been the most fixed factor in American education up to the present time is the so-called college. The college originally gave classical training, but as the years have gone by a decided effort has been made toward broadening or diversifying the training, so that in addition to a certain amount of mathematics, Latin, Greek and phil-

osophy there has been added a large amount of instruction in other lines, particularly those relating to science. Many of these colleges are in cities of small size or in villages. Many of them have achieved a great reputation and have large endowments, adequate to the carrying on of the work for which they were originally created. It is wholly improbable that colleges of this character can become universities in the strict sense of the word, since their location and endowments are not of a sort to make it possible. These institutions will, however, continue to exist. The long history behind such colleges as Amherst, Williams, Dartmouth, Bowdoin and, in the West, Oberlin, not to mention others, and the extensive buildings, laboratories, equipment and endowments already in their possession render their future secure. On the other hand, there are colleges which originally were in small cities, but around which have grown up large populations, such as those about Harvard and Yale, and to which great endowments have been given, so that their development is more nearly along that of university lines than other institutions. In addition to these are other institutions of great prominence receiving state aid, as well as institutions which have been established in great centers of population, such as Columbia University, Western Reserve University, Johns Hopkins and the University of Chicago, which tend to grow along the same university lines. Beside these so-called colleges we have scientific schools, as the Institute of Technology in Boston, the Sheffield Scientific School, Clark University of Worcester, and the Case School of Applied Science in Cleveland. One has but to regard the different lines of work carried on in these institutions and understand the absolute lack of correlation between their different departments to see that education in the United States is carried on in an absolutely illogical way, devoid of system and lacking in many of the advantages which would be incident to some established order.

The absence of all order in the conduct of education in America would seem to answer the first question which we have under consideration, viz., Is it desirable that some order be established? It seems to me that the answer to this must be absolutely in the affirmative, and that no man who has any connection with education can but appreciate the great necessity for the establishment of some relationship between the various grades of education. It is a much easier thing, however, to say it is a desirable object to accomplish than to point out the way in which it is to be accomplished. I feel myself out of place in speaking before a body of educators, upon a subject with which you as educators are so constantly occupied. As a teacher of medicine, however, the questions before us have constantly forced themselves upon me on account of the inadequate preparation for medical study presented even by college graduates. It is quite possible that a wider acquaintance with the subject might lead me to other conclusions, but there are certain thoughts in this direction to which I desire to give expression. The thing which I observe is this: in all our cities and villages are common schools and high schools. A child is put in at one end of the course and ground out at the other end in a certain number of years. In many cases, I do not say in all cases, as I have no question there are some notable exceptions, the course of study is not laid out with any definite purpose. A student's course when finished in the high school may terminate his education or it may prepare him to enter college, as we say. If it terminates his education it may perhaps have given him a fair degree of information and mental training. If it is to prepare him to enter college, I believe under most circumstances he is but poorly fitted to do so. Perhaps saying what I do before teachers better qualified than myself to judge of this, I may be considered guilty of unjust criticism and perhaps of rank heresy; but I venture to say that there

are comparatively few public schools in the United States which, as a matter of fact, prepare youth for college as well as they are prepared in schools whose special function it is to carry on this sort of work. A wide inquiry among teachers in colleges has led me to this conclusion. In the first place much of the teaching is not of the first rank. In the second place if a student is to have college training subsequent to his high school training, there is no use in wasting his time in elementary instruction in branches in which he will receive thorough instruction later. The great objection to the present method of carrying on work is three-fold, first, much time is lost in needless instruction of the elementary type, second, little opportunity is offered for a student intelligently capable to progress more rapidly than one who is dull, and third, the instruction given along needed lines which prepare a student for college is not sufficiently thorough. The courses of instruction have been suited to the ability of mediocre students and little premium has been put upon the rapid individual development of students more able to progress. As a result all are ground out in a certain number of years and at a given age. This criticism is not only true of common schools but it is true of colleges.

If a boy going to college is to terminate his education with his college course one line of instruction is perhaps desirable. If, on the other hand, he is to enter upon some professional study, there is no use of his wasting his time in the college where the instruction is poor along professional lines if he may be better instructed along these lines later in a professional school. I speak with freedom upon this subject, because I think I am sufficiently acquainted with it to do so, and I say without a moment's hesitation that instruction along so-called scientific lines in most colleges is wholly inadequate to take the place of instruction which is given in the best professional and technical schools. That line of instruction with which I

am of course best acquainted is instruction looking toward the study of medicine, and the best medical schools find that men who come to them from the large majority of colleges, seeking advanced standing on account of subjects already studied during college courses, are by no means so well trained as men who are taught in the professional schools themselves. This must necessarily remain so unless colleges are prepared to employ men thoroughly trained in this direction and spend a vastly greater amount in equipment than most of them are doing at the present time. The result of these conditions is that time is lost in preparing boys for college and that time is lost in college in preparing men for professional schools. It necessarily follows that when young men go to professional schools they are from two to three years older than they might reasonably be expected to be. In a word they have lost, when their whole education is considered, probably more than three years over and above what would be necessary if there were proper correlation of instruction between various schools. It seems to me, therefore, that it is beyond all possible question that some understanding of the terms school, college and university is highly desirable, and that there should be some correlation between these various departments of instruction..

I will now turn to the consideration of the second part of the proposition before us, viz., Is such a division practical? In such a complex condition of affairs as exists at the present time it is of course impossible for any man to point out a method which will be wholly satisfactory to all concerned. I do not know that any method could be established which would solve all the difficulties incident to the consideration of the question. I have often sought in my own mind a solution of the problem and the line of thought which has occurred to me is something as follows. In the first place it is the function of the state to give to the bulk of the children of the state the sort of

education which will best fit them for citizenship. The majority of children can have but a limited education. It is important, therefore, that this should be of the best sort. It is much more desirable that a small town should give a common school education along the lines most needed for the great body of students, than that it should give a less efficient education to these and attempt to give a preparatory college course to a small number of students who desire further study. I should say, therefore, in the first place that the state might establish a standard of instruction which must be reached in all common and high schools before these schools are permitted to give preparatory training for college and that no funds of a municipality should be taken for the purpose of giving preparatory instruction for college until the very best provision has been made along the lines of common education. If, after common education has been well provided for, a town or state desires to give further preparatory training for college, it may be permitted to do so. I see no reason why the state should not insist upon this. For the state to undertake to regulate the course of study in colleges not supported by the state would be a much more difficult matter. As I have already pointed out in the first part of my paper the college is an institution peculiar to the United States. It does not exist elsewhere. Many of our colleges have behind them a long and honorable history, they have a large body of alumni and are possessed of extensive endowments, buildings and equipment. They are corporate bodies and I question if the state would be able to regulate their courses of instruction. The question is, How can the state bring any efficient influence to bear upon the problem of higher education? It seems to me that this problem must be undertaken by states rather than by the federal government. Obviously, the federal government would scarcely undertake to direct the courses of instruction in venerable institutions such as Harvard,

Yale and Princeton. I question if the older states of the Union would be able to do much in this direction, thoroughly provided as they are with institutions of instruction of the higher sort. It would be a relatively easy matter for states which already have great state universities and few endowed colleges to bring strong influence to bear in this direction. They doubtless will work out this problem in their own way. The question comes up, What is to be done in other states, already provided with a sufficient number of colleges for every purpose of classical instruction and in which either there is no state university or the university, if it exists, has not reached a high degree of development.

It would not be unreasonable that the larger universities and colleges with great endowments, located in prosperous cities, should seek to develop themselves along the line of true university education. On the other hand, is it not possible that as the years go by, the colleges in the smaller towns may come to limit themselves more to a course of instruction preparatory to university work?

There are schools, however, in which any such division would be difficult. At a dinner given me some years ago in Boston, at which I met a large number of instructors in Harvard University, the question came up of the relationship borne by the professional schools of that university to the corporation. I remarked at that time that it seemed to me Harvard University was losing, or had in the past lost, a magnificent opportunity. As a graduate of the medical department of Harvard I had not been made to feel that this department bore any true relationship to the University itself, and I did not believe that the graduates of professional schools had any great share of affection for the University. I also stated that I thought this was a great misfortune for the University, since I believed it possible that all graduates of the professional schools might become enthusiastic supporters of the Uni-

versity itself. At a Harvard dinner given here some few weeks ago the same problem came up and a gentleman remarked to me that up to the present time the backbone of Harvard University had been its academic department. I do not question that this is true. It is possible that it may always remain so, but it seems to me that if it be true at Harvard. and that she must always retain her academic department, there are few universities in the great cities of the United States that would not be strengthened rather than weakened if they were to elevate their course of instruction to the true university standard and admit no one who had not already received a thorough preliminary training or what we ordinarily call a college course. On the other hand, instead of the colleges in our smaller towns striving to become universities, would it not be far better for them to content themselves to do thoroughly first-class college work. Their location and their facilities are such as to enable them to do this to the very best advantage. Besides I am inclined to think that the best place for the undergraduate is in a college town where he is under a certain amount of restraint and control, and where he has the benefit of the literary atmosphere which belongs to many of these college towns and which is of vast advantage in the culture of a young man. Even a slight acquaintance with Oxford or Cambridge. to say nothing of some of our own university towns, will, I think, be sufficient to convince any one of the value of environment in the culture of a student. If some relationship could be established between college and university I believe that our rural colleges would become more efficient and that the training which they give would be more thorough, and I believe also that the universities in our great cities, if relieved of the so-called "college course," would not only receive the cordial support of the vast number of colleges in our small towns but would also become broader and stronger.

In discussing the question further I do not know how I can do so better than to consider the state of affairs which exists in Ohio today, since the conditions are the same in Ohio as in a good many states around us. We have in Ohio between thirty and forty colleges. The last available statistics placed the assets of these colleges at about $16,000,000 Doubtless this figure is much too low. I presume that the total amount would be a vastly greater sum. Some of these colleges have a long and honorable history and give a thoroughly first-class course of undergraduate instruction. There is in the state no completely equipped university, according to the standard given us by the universities of Europe. The state has no control over its colleges and I doubt if it could obtain it constitutionally. What can it do? About thirty years ago, under a grant from the national government, a school of mechanical and agricultural instruction was started by the state at Columbus. This school has increased until it comes before the legislature this year asking a grant of about $400,000, and it also asks that this grant be made perpetual. It has from the United States government about $25,000 and as interest on funds given it by the general government it receives about $33,000. These latter sums, together with moneys received from laboratory fees, etc., amount to about $100,000. In a word, the State University of Ohio asks the state for the current year for a grant, which together with what it already has would amount to about $500,000. What does it give for the $500,000? It gives excellent instruction unquestionably along certain lines of technical training, but it is also attempting to give instruction in Latin, Greek, Sanscrit, Early Gothic, Indo-Germanic languages, and in fact along all the lines of instruction given in the ordinary college. If this grant were made by the legislature, Cuyahoga county would pay about $3,000 for every student it sends to Columbus. Hamilton county would pay a little more, Lucas county

would pay about $1,500, and a number of counties would be assessed for considerable sums of money and not send a single student. On the other hand, Franklin county, with four hundred and three students would pay only a little over $17,000. I cite these statistics simply as an illustration to show what I believe it is possible for the State of Ohio to do in the solution of this question. As I have already said, it can control the public schools, establishing the amount of instruction which they must give. It can establish rules directing under what conditions instruction may be given by the state in public schools preparatory to college. I have already said that I do not believe it can control the instruction which is given in the endowed institutions with which the state is so amply provided, but being so amply provided with instruction along lines of classical training in endowed colleges, the state can, with great advantage to itself give instruction in directions so sadly needed at the present time. The instruction which the state is giving in the development of agriculture is most desirable. Let it increase the quality and scope of the work which it gives in mathematics, electrical, mechanical and civil engineering; let it give higher instruction in the manufacture of pottery, so that we shall be able not only to produce the pottery which we do at the present time, but to produce porcelains which will rival any in the world. We have material and we have gas, so that the advantages which we possess in the manufacture of porcelain and of glass are very great. The state might do a vast amount in other directions.

There is another department in which instruction might be of the greatest value, and that is chemistry. The work which Germany has done in the development of chemistry in the last thirty years is enormous. It has produced for her a colossal revenue. There is no reason why Ohio and other states may not develop the investigation of alciloids, anelines, pigments, perfumes and oils,

and undertake research work which will be of incalculable value to the material development of the states. To illustrate what I mean I shall give a concrete example. About twelve years ago Lima oil sold for forty cents a barrel. The Standard Oil Company undertook to refine it, and spent for this purpose about $4,000,000, and when it had spent that sum it had utterly failed to accomplish its purpose. When it failed the price of Lima oil went down to fourteen cents a barrel, and the oil was used only for fuel. An able chemist, whom many of you know, a graduate of Heidelberg University, undertook the investigation of the refining of Lima oil. For less than one-tenth of the sum already spent for the same purpose, which had resulted in failure, he demonstrated to the Standard Oil Company how successfully to refine the oil. The Standard Oil Company had on hand before this time about 15,000,000 barrels of crude Lima oil, which had cost it forty cents per barrel, and the price had gone down to fourteen cents. Before it was known that a process for refining Lima oil had been invented, the Standard Oil Company had bought colossal producing properties upon the basis of fourteen cents a barrel. It sold out in Pennsylvania where crude oil cost $2.40 a barrel, and it was refining Lima oil a year upon the fourteen cent basis before it was known that it was able to do so. This is the reason why the Standard Oil Company is able to pay a dividend of 48 per cent. It is because it has a well educated chemist. If any thoughtful man stops and thinks for a moment what the result to the state has been he must be greatly impressed by it. For the last twelve years the price of Lima oil has varied from fourteen cents to $1.80 a barrel. It sells now at ninety cents a barrel. Its average price during that time has been about one dollar a barrel. Comparing the average price during that period with that obtained before it could be refined, there is a difference of eighty-six cents. The production of Lima

oil in the state is about 60,000 barrels per day; in other words, Lima oil produces in the State of Ohio at its present price about $50,000 a day more than it did before it was known that it could be refined. It seems to me that it must be apparent to any man that if a high degree of technical knowledge can produce such colossal results to the state it should be the function of the state to give technical instruction. I might cite other things of equal importance. The same chemist undertook the production of sulphur in the sulphur fields of Louisiana. By the process of forcing into beds of sulphur lying about 600 feet below the surface of the ground, water heated up to about 350° F., he was able to fuse the sulphur and force it to the surface and by this process produce sulphur at $2.80 per ton which is sold at $18.50 a ton. A few years ago the only salt produced in the State of Ohio was that produced down along the Ohio River. It was of low grade and small in quantity. The amount in 1880 was 530,000 barrels. In 1891 this had decreased to 218,000 barrels. The same chemist has invented a process which has made the State of Ohio, incredible as it may seem to you, the second salt producing state in the Union, with an output of 1,600,000 barrels. Salt is now produced with impurities amounting to only one-tenth of one per cent. I firmly believe that the consideration of facts such as these might properly lead the State of Ohio, in the instruction which is subsidized and provided for by the state, practically to solve the question of the relationship of the school, college and university, by regulating the instruction in the common schools, by directing under what conditions instruction preparatory to college work may be given in the public schools and by subsidizing true university education. In addition to this the state should give instruction along technical lines, such as have been indicated. For this no adequate provision now exists, nor is there reasonable hope that the vast expenditure necessary to

the highest grade of instruction in technical subjects can be provided in any other way.

To instruction in technical subjects might be added instruction in forestry, in agriculture and in certain of the mechanical arts. It seems to me that the opportunity before this state, before Indiana, and before other states similarly circumstanced with these is unique and most fortunate. I do not believe that the advantage which exists in these states has been by any means realized. It is incomparably beyond those which exist in almost any other state in the Union. Can you imagine that the State of Massachusetts will undertake the establishment of a state university to parallel those branches of instruction which are already so well taught at Harvard, Williams, Amherst, Clark University and the School of Technology of Boston? I do not believe that it would be possible for the state by legislation to secure funds for the purpose. On the other hand, without questioning the greatness of universities such as those of Michigan, Wisconsin and California, we must remember that these universities are in states which are not provided with endowed colleges as are some other states, particularly the State of Ohio. The development of these state institutions is limited by the fact that inasmuch as the state is not provided by private munificence, with thoroughly equipped colleges, giving all the necessary advantages of training along academic and philosophical lines, all this must be provided by the university, and as a result it must give instruction in all languages, both living and dead, and in some that have been for a long time buried. It must give instruction in all the technical lines and in professional lines as well. Here it meets the difficulty of being compelled to provide, for instance in medicine, instruction for students of the old school sometimes called allopathic and also for students of homeopathy. When there is a sufficiently large lobby in the legislature to accomplish it, it is not at

all improbable that it will take up various other lines of instruction, such as osteopathy, and no one knows where the thing may terminate. These states must establish schools of dentistry, of law, and it is impossible to say to what degree the division of instruction may not be developed. In states such as Ohio, however, this is unnecessary, but the state may do a thing which is of vastly greater moment. It may establish great laboratories of an efficiency which no ordinary college can possibly provide, and give instruction which is far more advanced than is possible for other states in which all of the instruction along both college and university lines must be provided for. I cannot conceive of any better step for the State of Ohio than to develop higher instruction in the state university, and since the state is not hampered by expenditure incident to many other institutions it will be quite an easy matter to develop here a university which must have recognition not only in this state but in the United States, and we may well say throughout the world. An institution thus developed can command the cordial support of every college in the state, and every citizen would feel in it the greatest pride and would willingly be taxed for its support.

So far as the last proposition before us is concerned, if the division of instruction by the state is desirable and practical, the question arises, Is it legal? As I have already said, this is a part of the question which seems to me more appropriately left to the consideration of my colleague. My own feeling with reference to it is that it is questionable if any action of the sort by the federal government would be possible. I also question if mandatory action by the state directing the course of instruction could constitutionally be brought to bear upon the corporate colleges now existing. It seems to me, however, that the State of Ohio may, as I have indicated, do a vast amount toward the development of successful in-

struction and make the state as great in its intellectual as it has come to be in its political and commercial development.

What is true of this state is equally true of other states similarly situated. As it seems to me, institutions of instruction, whether they are supported by the state or by private munificence, whether they are for primary or advanced instruction, have but one reason for existence, and that is, that they employ the student's time to the best possible advantage. At the present time in the total absence of any correlation in the teaching of our various schools, much valuable time is lost and much instruction is but inadequately given. I thoroughly believe that the time has arrived when the State of Ohio, and others similarly circumstanced, may secure the ends so much to be desired, viz., that all teaching which is done shall be done well; that it shall meet certain established standards to obtain recognition by the state, and that instruction shall be provided in technical lines upon a plane higher than that which exists anywhere else in the world. If the state cannot legally determine the standing of all its schools, both public and private, it can regulate the standard of instruction in its common and high schools, and it can support a school of technical instruction upon so high a plane as to command the enthusiastic support of every citizen and every college of the state.

PROFESSOR DENNEY, of Ohio State University, commenting on Professor Allen's paper, said that the statistics quoted were misleading and inaccurate so far as they referred to Ohio State University. A large number of students charged to Franklin county really belonged to other counties, some being members of families who had but recently come to Columbus in order to educate their children, others having enrolled themselves as Franklin county students in order to secure voting privileges. A

fairer numerical test of the usefulness of a university would be afforded by asking, not "Where do the students come from?" but "Where are the graduates and ex-students now located and what service are they rendering to the state?" Cleveland might not send very many students to the state university at present, but Cleveland had many graduates and ex-students of the university in its citizenship who were filling important places as engineers, teachers, editors, and professional men. The geographical origin of the students should never determine whether or not a state university should be supported.

The opposition to the Ohio State University was centered against the college of arts, philosophy and science, not against the colleges of engineering and agriculture. He desired to call attention to the fact that the additional money now being asked for by the Ohio State University was for engineering buildings. Yet the appropriation was being opposed by those who said they wanted a great engineering college at the university. As dean of the college of arts, he would like to know how a great college of engineering could be carried on without professors of modern languages, and how the university could continue to receive the federal appropriation unless it continued to teach history, economics, and the English language, as commanded in the second Morrill bill. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology had found that it must provide general courses, such as are offered in any college of liberal arts, in order to meet the proper demands upon a great engineering school.

Before the college of arts, philosophy and science was abolished for "paralleling and paralyzing" the work of other Ohio colleges, he would like to know how a great graduate school at the university such as was advocated by the other Ohio colleges could be maintained without retaining a good share of the advanced undergraduate work now offered in the college of arts. To abolish a college

of liberal arts as the first step towards establishing a great graduate school seemed to him to be illogical. Clark University and Johns Hopkins, which had started without undergraduate departments, had been compelled to institute them afterwards in the interest of sound graduate work.

In his opinion the colleges of Ohio should keep before them the fact that a very small percentage of young people of college age were in college. The effort should therefore be not to curtail the usefulness of any existing institution, state or private; each institution should do the work that it could do best; there was work enough for all. Each institution should be allowed to develop along natural lines according to the demands of its constituency; and it followed that if students were permitted to go where they desired, the institutions that did the best work need have no fears. As for the Ohio State University what it asked of the friends of education in Ohio was, most especially, to let it alone a few years. In his opinion the natural course of events would soon solve many of the problems that had been raised by Professor Allen.

The discussion was continued by Dean E. H. Hopkins of Western Reserve University, who considered the question with special reference to the high school.

In the absence of Professor Stagg the following paper was read by Professor J. V. Denney:

THE USES OF FOOTBALL.

BY PROFESSOR A. A. STAGG, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

American football may very properly be called the greatest of all athletic games. It comprises more science and art and more physical, mental and moral qualities than any other sport. It is one of the most exacting games physically, and yet one of the most healthful. By its very vigor it sets up a bar to the feeble and sickly engaging in it. It is a game for healthy, robust youth—fit to be played only during the bracing weather of the autumn season.

Under no circumstances should it be engaged in seriously without suitable preliminary preparation physically for it. Played by boys and young men after such preparation it yields marvelous returns physically, mentally and morally.

I need not speak of the physical returns other than to say that young men build up large, strong and elastic frames and muscle faster through playing football than from any of the other sports.

As to the mental development I may say it is a game of wits—and wits every second of play. There is no time during the play when a player's mind is not at work. Calm and clear thinking must tell him the signal, must indicate the point of attack, must interpret his part in it in general, and his judgment, strategy and tactics in particular. The changes are kaleidoscopic in frequency and variety, and call for instantaneous perception, judgment and action. Quick decision and adjustment follow in close and frequent sequence.

Football also trains players to lose self-consciousness; to be calm under excitement and yet constantly on the alert; to develop concentration and yet to be resourceful.

But if football is a game of wits it is also a game of character. The grandest traits of human character are obedience to duty and loyalty to a principle, a fellow-being, an organization, an institution, a country. Without these every state would be a state of anarchy, every home the nest bed of anarchy, every man an anarchist. Better than any book of moral science or code of ethics football develops this grand moral sense. Obedience to daily practice. obedience to coaching, obedience to training rules, to discipline, to self-denial, to frequent physical discomfort in correcting faults of play or in learning new methods of attack and defense, obedience to the various responsibilities of team work. obedience to the sense of duty to the team, to the institution for which it stands —these and all these with unvarying monotony are ever present in playing the game.

Football develops the ability to feel and to bear responsibility. Individual responsibility is the keynote of the play, team play the harmony. Every man must be in line and act on time. Eleven men must be in every play. Each has his special function. He can not, he must not, he will not, shirk it. He is a link in the chain, a cog in the wheel—aye! he is much more, he is a thinking link, an adjustable cog, with great possibilities for tremendous individual initiative.

Boys learn to know this relationship and to feel this responsibility and to bear it. They can not comprehend the game ever so slightly without having it impressed upon them. Every kick-off, every line-up, every scrimmage, every signal, every play constantly and persistently deepens this impression.

It is said that "atmosphere, not dogma, educates." Surely then the never-ceasing sense of responsibility and duty which surrounds the football player can not fail to quicken and to deepen his moral senses.

While football lays emphasis on team play it is to a

peculiar degree a game of individuals, and for the development of individuals. At every scrimmage the rush line feels this, at every charge and defence the backs are aware of it. It is the old battle—man against man, and every player soon learns that he is up against it, as it were. Every man will fight when he gets into a corner, and in a football game he gets there pretty often. Then again the game demands of every player that he do certain particular things at certain particular times. He must do them oftentimes entirely himself. Certain features of the play are entirely his. Duty, responsibility, everything urge him on. He does them. Again and again he does them, and like the baby learning to walk, each step which he takes gives him strength and confidence in himself. Self-reliance gained even in playing football opens up avenues of endeavor which are unending in their possibilities.

Still further, I believe there is more moral fibre built upon the atheletic field than in any of the other affairs which take a boy's attention. Let me give you a concrete illustration: A boy takes part in a football game for the first time. He is quick-tempered. In the midst of a scrimmage perhaps he is jostled by some one, and his attention is quickly turned from the play in hand, which had been all absorbing, and he immediately seeks retaliation on the one who has given him the bump. This happens again and again, and as often does his temper get the better of him. But after a while, he notices that each time he gives way in temper and turns his attention to retaliating, he gives his opponents so much greater chance to carry out their purposes, and finally he learns to grit his teeth and stand it, because he sees that it pays to keep his attention centered on the play in hand. The boy has learned an invaluable lesson for life, namely, that one cannot afford to lose control of himself, because it interferes with the attainment of the desired end; ultimately, because it is strong to be master of himself.

But then there is another side of self-control which must not be overlooked, and that is the self-control which comes from training in contests. It is most beneficent in its results. It is right in line also with the teaching and practice of the old church fathers. The object is not to make the body so healthy and pure and strong that it may be a fit temple for the indwelling of the Holy Spirit, but no priest or church father could have prescribed a course of dieting and regularity of living which could do more for the body than the courses of training which the young men undergo in athletic teams. And the result is surprising in its helpfulness to purity and healthfulness of living, and in the power of self-control which the young men gain And after all, the power most needed in a young man's life is self-control, or the ability to keep the body in balance—to be its master while it works for his highest and best interests.

Can any one place a value on the power of such training and exercise on a young man's life? It is inestimable. Only those who have passed through a period of such training can form any idea of its helpfulness. and even they do not know its full influence on their lives. The baser thoughts have little to do with a brain washed with such rich, pure blood. The passions have little sway over a man with that fineness of physical feeling, with those steady nerves, and with that spontaneity and wholesomeness of life.

It is not too much to say that the training that is undergone in football has saved hundreds of young men unto purity and right living, and it has given to a vast number such a physical foundation that it has been possible for them to double and even treble the productiveness of their lives.

The training of the will power which a young man gets on the athletic field is of no small value in this fight. The daily practice of the will which is brought about in

football, where a youth puts forth his utmost efforts to win, to overcome the points of difficulty which are constantly presented in the contests, to vanquish an opponent, to crush down the give-up spirit, which frequently arises when things are going against him or when he becomes physically tired or fain would stop,—all these efforts train a youth in the powerful use of his will—even to that extent that he will never give up, for he has trained himself to conquer all things.

Again, football trains boys to be generous-minded and unselfish. The whole discipline of the game, while it cultivates individuality, tends to destroy selfishness. This is notably true of college football, where the man who does not subordinate his individual interests for the success of the college or for the good of the team is cast aside and replaced by another. College sentiment, not to mention that of the team, the captain and the coach, all unite in making the life of a selfish athlete miserable. The college athlete who will not deny himself certain luxuries of palate, and all stimulants and narcotics, will not take on regular habits of eating and sleeping, giving up the delights of special dinners and spreads and entertainments beyond hours, and then report for practice regularly and under direction; who will not utterly forget his own personal interests in the play in hand; that there is a grandstand full of people watching him; that he has any friends or relatives in the crowd who would be glad to have him with them during the intervals of play; who will not take desperate chances with a disregard of a hard fall and subsequent pain—the college athlete, I say, who will not do all this and do it willingly and with zest, is usually not wanted on the best college teams. All this is expected of athletes and is usually gladly given. In fact, the principle of unselfishness in regard to one's own desires and interests when college honor and the team would be affected thereby, is one of the most powerful and beautiful expressions

of loyalty to be seen in modern life. Largely on this account, I venture to say, rests the public interest in college sport, because it is at once the highest and best type of amateurism and the essence of loyalty and unselfishness.

I believe in playing football because it develops healthy and manly men—men who will not be afraid of the rough and tumble of life; men of courage, of strength, of self-reliance, of determination and perseverance; men of high moral sense of duty; men of the do-or-die and never-give-up qualities; men who can bear and forbear; who possess the self-control gained in many a scrimmage; who know how to take defeat and accept victory; men who see quickly and as quickly act; who are accustomed to handle emergencies; men of steady nerves, susceptible of the greatest response to the command of the will.

Football trains the individual to see opportunities and to seize them; to take in the existing circumstances and to judge accordingly; to perceive quickly and to interpret rightly; to be strategic and to outwit strategy; to obey authority and to be the leader; to subordinate individual interests for the team's sake, while at the same time it employs the individual to the fullest degree.

THE USE AND ABUSE OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS.

BY PRINCIPAL J. E. ARMSTRONG, OF ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO.

I am not an athlete nor do I lay any claim to past athletic honors except that when a boy I could outrun my companions. This ability has served a useful purpose ever since, for, as the old proverb has it, "He who fights and runs away, may live to fight another day." Some of my worthy coadjutors may not so easily escape the wrath of our common foe, for lack of this useful accomplishment.

I have the courage, however, and the war instinct sufficiently developed in me to stand my ground and defend our position until our opponents surrender or succeed in spiking our guns.

My interest in athletics is chiefly from a psychological view point, since I believe that the instincts of young people demand the stimuli which athletic sports offer, and that to deprive youth of these health-giving stimuli leaves them dwarfed in manly characteristics and lacking in some of the fiber that goes to make up a man in the best sense of the word. I am fully aware of the fact that we have many specimens of the noblest types of manhood who have never played a game of football or tennis, but to say this is simply to repeat the protest against college education by self-educated men. We are living in a new age; conditions of life are very different from what they were when the majority of us were schoolboys. Our life in crowded cities makes it more necessary than ever to look carefully after the playtime of our young people or we shall have a race dwarfed in intellect, weak in will power, and lacking in manly courage.

Some twenty years ago, when I first began my work as a teacher in a city high school, it seemed to me something was decidedly lacking in the life of the average boy and girl of high school age. There were no organized sports, except possibly baseball. Marbles and tops had been outgrown. To smoke cigarettes or play pranks on teachers or younger pupils seemed to be the chief amusement. An occasional fist fight or wild outbreak of rebellion served as the safety valve for pent-up animal spirits. About ten years ago, our high schools in Chicago became interested in football, through the example of our neighboring colleges and universities. It was like a burning match applied to tinder. The schools went wild over it. The pupils of many of our schools became interested as a mob in the affairs of their own team. There immediately

sprang up a spirit of loyalty to school and a well defined belligerent attitude toward all rival schools. The girls shared in these feelings quite as much as the boys. This athletic spirit wellnigh overshadowed every other interest. Teachers and parents were at once divided among themselves as to what should be done. Many teachers strenuously advocated suppressing the whole thing. Some said, "If this goes on we shall have to give up Latin. Our pupils have more interest in athletics than they have in the Classics. Let us destroy this heresy." Other teachers went into the field, joined in the spirit and found thereby fresh interest in Cæsar's wars. There was less tendency to mischievous pranks, teasing and bullying than ever before. Schools that countenanced or encouraged athletics found an easy road to the pupils' hearts if not to their intellects.

Many parents appealed to the schools to suppress those brutal games, admitting their inability to prevent their *one* boy from participating, vainly hoping the schools could and would extend their control over the after-school playtime, miles away from the school grounds. Then came the press, feeling after public sentiment; now condemning the schools for encouraging games that disturb the public quiet with shouts of enthusiasm or deafening blasts of horns, and now condemning the schools for trying to interfere with the liberty of pupils after school hours. Even school boards and legislatures have thought to place a ban on some of the more vigorous games by prohibition; but the games go on just the same.

Choosing and getting a wife is not all moonshine nor sunshine, nor does it always prove to be without danger or difficulty. Many suffer defeat or forfeit their lives for their foolish ambition. Yet mankind in general and man in particular is not disheartened at this. It only makes the prize the more to be desired. The schools that saw in the intensity of athletic interest a mysterious power,

and an easy road to youthful co-operation, have persevered in their efforts to eliminate the evils and preserve the good. The first attempts at faculty control were met with open hostility. Pupils felt that this was their own affair, and that as athletic sports were conducted after school hours the faculty should have nothing to say about their control. Even some parents and the press took this ground with them; but the difficulties and abuses grew and multiplied. Money was required to provide suits, balls and coaches, and the faculty must be appealed to for funds. Semi-professional athletes or "ringers" entered the "other fellow's" school, and some one in authority was needed to show the injustice of this. Of course no school complained of its own bad practice. Athletic leagues made regulations for correcting abuses, but found great difficulty in enforcing them. A protest was usually made against each winning team, and, naturally, all the defeated teams would vote against the team that had in turn defeated each of them; so, many times, victory was voted out of existence by the power of the ballot.

In the next stage of the game, the intensity of the struggle for athletic honors knew no bounds. Young men of athletic ability enrolled in the schools, played football, won the applause of the assembled multitudes, failed in all their studies and left school at the end of the football season covered with glory. When the emergency arose, as it frequently did, a "ringer" was taken in under an assumed name, and while he did not go home with glory to his real name, he frequently went with more spending money in his pocket.

Some schools saw early the necessity of making a scholarship rule, but this worked great hardship, since many of the opposing teams were under no such rules. Three of the Chicago high schools whose teams were most prominent in athletics were called together by the writer, and, after a general plan was formed, representa-

tives of the other high schools of Chicago and Cook county were invited, and an athletic league was formed which superseded the former pupil organization. Rules were adopted governing the eligibility of players and providing for a faculty board of control who should hear and decide all protests. Since that time improvements have been made in the management of all athletic sports so that few abuses remain. Supt. Cooley deserves great credit for adding the final touch of authority needed to bring about the desired condition of perfect faculty control. I do not mean by this that there are no difficulties to overcome. That "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty" is as true here as elsewhere. I do believe, however, that school athletics have now passed from the experimental stage to a settled condition of control, thoughtful supervision and healthy development, and while some are still hoping that public sentiment will rise up and with one mighty stroke of legislative enactment make football as safe as marbles and bathing, as devoid of risk as a sponge bath, others will go on as they have in the past, utilizing the mighty force of instinctive love of play to lead young people to make the most of themselves during the years of preparation for the mighty conflict of life.

Away back in the mist-shrouded ages of prehistoric human existence, man disputed with the hyena and the cave bear for supremacy; later on, and, alas, too near to the present, he has disputed with his fellow man for the same. War has occupied so large a share of the interests of the race that history consists chiefly of battles, victories and defeats. No one who has made a study of heredity will deny that those occupations that have chiefly concerned a race of animals cannot help but impress the progeny with strong instinctive tendencies. Is it strange, then, that our children naturally resist authority, become wayward and contrary, rebel against control, quarrel, or fight? These are the traits of character that led our

Anglo-Saxon forefathers to become the liberty-loving, independent men they were, and we honor them for it. Are we surprised that the ten-year-old boy goes wild over the stories of war and carnage, or marches all day long with a wooden gun and a tin bayonet, and with a feather in his cap? Who does not recall with a thrill of pleasure even now the lines:

> "Oh! were you ne'er a school boy,
> And did you never train,
> And feel that swelling of the heart
> You ne'er can feel again?
>
> Didst never meet far down the street,
> With plume and banner gay,
> When the kettle for the kettle-drum
> Bade you march, march away?"

It is our Roman inheritance that makes us like organization and submission to a leader. This is the time for lessons in saluting "old glory," for loud booming firecrackers and other such forms of patriotism. Deprive the boy of these stimuli and you will scarcely, if at all, awaken the same degree of enthusiastic devotion to the old flag. About the same time in the boy's life he becomes a tease. He tortures his pet animals or his smaller playmates. This occupation becomes fascinating because it makes him seem stronger than those who wince under his treatment. Later on the boy becomes an Indian fighter or a pirate. He breaks windows, smashes fences or pulls up shrubbery or paints things red. It gives him a feeling of power to see things crumble or vanish. But this power to destroy is only the complement of the power to create. Give him the power to create some of the vagaries of fancy, show him his limitations from the lack of skill, show him what skill guided by intelligence can do and he becomes a devotee to the arts and crafts. Manual training is the demand of this instinct.

Then there follow the instincts of the age of Chivalry,

when man was "The Lover, sighing like furnace, with a woful ballad, made to his mistress' eyebrow." No more uncombed hair or untidy clothes. He now seeks to please those he formerly sought to annoy. A new fire burns within and love is life. His war instinct assumes a new form. He is desirous of the trophies of war. He would adorn his fair lady with medals and badges won in contest. He desires to become a leader, and would like to organize the scattered and wasted forces. He is even willing to become a part of a greater whole or a cog in the wheel in order to accomplish greater results. This is the age for football and other team games. This is the time to teach submission to law, concentration, devotion to leadership, self-restraint and self-denial.

Social games of all kinds recognize the war instinct. Karl Groos traces the fighting play from its most cruel manifestation to its culmination in tragedy. Colin Scott says, "In some tribes a man dare not marry, and indeed no woman would have him, until he has slain a certain number of foes." Groos says, "It is not the cruelty of destructiveness but the feeling of power in combat that is most prominent in tragedy."

Life is indeed a warfare from that of the brute to the highest intellectual and spiritual being. Can there be anything more pitiable than the young man who has been so tied to his mother's apron that he cannot look the world in the face for fear his feelings will be hurt?—one who dares not mingle with men and women because he is too sensitive to ridicule? He needs the jibes and taunts and tricks of full-blooded, vigorous boys to thicken his mental skin and arouse in him some of the instinct of war before he will become of service to society or humanity. Compare this pitiable creature with the young man trained in play warfare, alert, keen, resourceful, accustomed to give and take the sally of wit.—which is but the warfare of words,—courageous and withal manly.

Have we not too long made a mistake in allowing these instincts to develop without recognizing their purpose? Spaulding points out the fact that the instincts of the chick, when allowed to react to proper stimuli, establish habits that persist throughout life to protect the life of the individual. On the other hand, when the proper stimulus is withheld, the instinct soon fades and the resultant habit is lost forever. If we could but utilize these mighty forces in training youth, we might establish habits that would be of infinite value to the race. We may so starve the instinct for war that our young men will despise the struggle for advancement, or for victory of any kind, and become the lifeless, ambitionless, idle beings we call tramps, loafers or drones.

You may ask if football is to cure all this. No, that would be an extravagant claim. I firmly believe, however, that football furnishes the strongest stimulus and offers the best training to the war instinct; that many other athletic games stand nearly as high in furnishing this stimulus; that instead of opposing these sports we should rather assist the boys in eliminating the evils or abuses. We should teach them that in this warfare their antagonists are not their enemies; that it would be better to be defeated than win by unfair means; and above all they must be just and manly at all times. In order to bring this about the faculty of the schools should unite to make proper conditions: to make rules uniform; to make proper boards of appeal; to provide police protection against the hoodlum element that frequent all games where skill or chance may offer an opportunity to indulge a depraved phase of the war instinct; to procure proper officials and see that all necessary machinery is provided to remove temptations and prevent unfair tactics.

Many of the states now have state athletic associations conducted by the faculties of the schools. There are many schools throughout these states, however, that

would rather leave these matters to chance than recognize the games as a part of the education of youth. They escape some annoyance but neglect a great opportunity to shape the lives of the pupils entrusted to their care. Not until we recognize the power of the war instinct in preparing young people for life's battles shall we rise to the fullest possibilities in training future men and women. War plays must ever be the means of awakening dormant powers, and the schools and colleges should see that the instincts of youth are utilized in their fullest preparation for life's more serious warfare.

What I would plead for, then, is not that athletics should be treated as a necessary evil, and certainly not that they should be suppressed as being opposed to education, but that schools should recognize that contests of all kinds, and especially physical contests, are the manifestations of the war instinct of the race; that the war instinct is useful in establishing the spirit of contest, struggle with opposing circumstances, the desire to overcome obstacles; and that it leads to the principle of organization and concentration of social forces. I would plead for more careful supervision on the part of the faculties of the schools, just recognition of the interests of youth, and a high standard of manly conduct. And while the victory may seem to be the goal in plain sight or the championship banner, the real victory will be a victory over self, the goal of full preparation for life's contests and the pennant of justice, liberality and noble manhood.

On motion of Principal Harris it was voted that a committee* consisting of three representatives from the

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*The following persons were appointed to serve as members of this committee: Principal E. L. Harris, of the Central High School, Cleveland; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of Englewood High School, Chicago; Principal C. G. Ballou of the Toledo High School; Professor A. A. Stagg of the University of Chicago; Professor J. V. Denney of Ohio State University; and Professor C. S. Slichter, of the University of Wisconsin.

colleges and three from the high schools, be raised to take into consideration questions relating to both interscholastic and intercollegiate contests, and to formulate a uniform set of rules to regulate such contests.

The report of the auditing committee was then presented as follows, and, upon motion, was adopted:

Your auditing committee beg leave to report that they have examined the accounts of the treasurer for the year 1901–1902, and find them correctly cast, with adequate vouchers for all expenditures.

F. L. BLISS,
C. E. ST. JOHN.

The committee on the time and place of the next meeting then reported as follows:

Your committee recommend that the Association meet in 1903 in Chicago, at about one year from this time, the exact date of the meeting being left to the Executive Committee.

JOSEPH SWAIN,
E. W. COY,
J. H. MACCRACKEN,

The report was adopted.

The committee appointed to nominate officers for the ensuing year, reported as follows:

The Committee on Nominations beg leave to submit the following list of officers of the Association for the ensuing year:

FOR PRESIDENT:

Director Geo. N. Carman,
Lewis Institute, Chicago.

FOR VICE PRESIDENTS:

OHIO—

President Chas. F. Thwing,
Western Reserve University, Cleveland.

Principal E. W. Coy,
Hughes High School, Cincinnati.

MICHIGAN—

Professor F. W. Kelsey,
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Principal F. L. Bliss,
The University School, Detroit.

INDIANA—

President Joseph Swain,
Indiana University, Bloomington.
Superintendent Edward Ayres,
Lafayette.

ILLINOIS—

President W. R. Harper,
University of Chicago.
Dr. A. F. Nightingale,
Chicago.

WISCONSIN—

Professor E. A. Birge,
University of Wisconsin, Madison.
A. W. Tressler,
Inspector of High Schools, Madison.

MINNESOTA—

Professor W. N. West,
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
President F. A. Weld,
Normal School, Moorhead.

OWA—

President William F. King,
Cornell College, Mt. Vernon.
President H. H. Seerley,
State Normal School, Cedar Falls.

MISSOURI—

Professor M. S. Snow,
Washington University, St. Louis.
Principal W. J. S. Bryan,
High School, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA—

President E. B. Andrews,
University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
Principal H. J. Davenport,
High School, Lincoln.

KANSAS—

Professor F. H. Snow,
University of Kansas, Lawrence.
Superintendent W. A. Davidson,
Topeka.

COLORADO—

President James H. Baker,
University of Colorado, Boulder.
Principal Wm. H. Smiley,
High School No. 1, Denver.

FOR SECRETARY—

Professor F. N. Scott,
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

FOR TREASURER—

Principal J. E. Armstrong,
Englewood High School, Chicago.

FOR MEMBERS OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, in addition to the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, *ex officio*:

Professor C. A. Waldo, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.
Principal E. L. Harris, Central High School, Cleveland.
President J. R. Kirk, State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.
President G. E. McLean, University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Signed by the Committee { A. S. DRAPER, S. O. HARTWELL, T. H. JOHNSTON.

The report was adopted.

The following resolution was adopted by unanimous vote of the Association.

Resolved, That the members of this Association extend their hearty thanks to President Thwing, Superintendent Jones, Principal Harris and their efficient body of assistants, who have so cordially received and entertained the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at this seventh annual meeting in Cleveland, and who have so materially and vitally contributed to the success of the meeting.

We also desire to express our appreciation of the kindness of the Chamber of Commerce and the officers of Beckwith Church in granting the use of their respective buildings for the meetings of the Association.

The following persons and institutions were, upon recommendation by the executive committee, admitted to membership in the Association:

Institutional members: University School, Cleveland,

Ohio (Principal George D. Pettee); East High School, Cleveland, Ohio (Principal B. U. Rannells); South High School, Cleveland, Ohio (Principal G. A. Ruetenik); Lincoln High School, Cleveland, Ohio (Principal J. W. McLane); High School, Chillicothe, Ohio (Principal Ralph R. Upton); East High School, Columbus, Ohio (Principal F. B. Pearson); Park College, Parkville, Missouri (President Lowell M. McAfee).

Individual members: Professor T. F. Moran, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana; Professor Charles S. Howe, Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio; Professor U. S. Grant, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

The Association then adjourned.

At the close of the meeting the members of the Association through the courtesy of President Thwing, took luncheon at Guilford House, College for Women, Western Reserve University.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1902 AND 1903.

Institutions.

(c. m. means charter member.)

OHIO.

Ohio State University, c. m., Columbus, President W. O. Thompson.
Western Reserve University, c. m., Cleveland, President Chas F. Thwing.
Oberlin College, c. m., Oberlin, President H. C. King.
Ohio Wesleyan University, c. m., Delaware, President Jas. W. Bashford.
Denison University, '99, Granville, President D. B. Purinton.
University of Cincinnati, '99, Cincinnati, President H. Ayers.
Central High School, c. m., Cleveland, Principal Edward L. Harris.
Hughes High School, '96, Cincinnati, Principal E. W. Coy.
Steele High School, '96, Dayton, Principal Malcolm Booth.
High School, '96, Toledo, Principal C. G. Ballou.
Walnut Hills High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal J. Remsen Bishop.
Woodward High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal Geo. W. Harper.
West High School, '00, Cleveland, Principal Theo. H. Johnston.
East High School, '02, Columbus, Principal F. B. Pearson.
University School, '02, Cleveland, Principal George D. Pettee.
South High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal G. A. Ruetenik.
Lincoln High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal J. W. McLane.
High School, '02, Chillicothe, Principal Ralph R. Upton.
East High School, Cleveland, Principal B. U. Rannels.

MICHIGAN.

University of Michigan, c. m., Ann Arbor, President Jas. B. Angell.
Albion College, c. m., Albion, President Samuel Dickie.
Central High School, c. m., Grand Rapids, Principal A. J. Volland.
Michigan Military Academy, c. m., Orchard Lake.
High School, '95, Kalamazoo, Superintendent S. O. Hartwell.
East Side High School, '95, Saginaw, Superintendent E. C. Warriner.
University School, '00, Detroit, Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

INDIANA.

Indiana University, c. m., Bloomington, President Joseph Swain.
Wabash College, c. m., Crawfordsville, President W. P. Kane.
High School, c. m., LaPorte, Superintendent J. W. Knight.
High School, '96, Fort Wayne, Principal C. F. Lane.
Girls' Classical School, '00, Indianapolis, Principal May W. Sewall.
High School, '01, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

University of Illinois, c. m., Champaign, President Andrew S. Draper.
University of Chicago, c. m., Chicago, President Wm. R. Harper.
Northwestern University, c. m., Evanston, President E. J. James.
Lake Forest University, c. m., Lake Forest, President R. D. Harlan.
Knox College, '96, Galesburg, Professor H. E. Griffith.
High School, c. m., Evanston, Principal Henry L. Boltwood.
Northwestern Academy, c. m., Evanston, Principal H. F. Fisk.
Morgan Park Academy, c. m., Morgan Park, Dean W. J. Chase.
Manual Training School, c. m., Chicago, Director H. H. Belfield.
Harvard School, c. m., Chicago, Principal John J. Schobinger.
High School, c. m., Peoria, Superintendent Newton C. Dougherty.
Lake Forest Academy, c. m., Lake Forest, Principal Conrad Hibbeler.
North Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal O. S. Westcott.
West Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal C. M. Clayberg.
Hyde Park High School, '95, Chicago, Principal C. W. French.
Lake View High School, '96, Chicago, Principal B. F. Buck.
Englewood High School, '96, Chicago, Principal J. E. Armstrong.
Ottawa Tp. High School, '96, Ottawa, Principal J. O. Leslie.
Lyons Tp. High School, '96, La Grange, Principal Cole.
Lewis Institute, '95, Chicago, Director G. N. Carman.
Streator Tp. High School, '97, Streator, Principal Alfred Bayliss.
Bradley Polytechnic Institute, '97, Peoria, Director E. O. Sisson.
High School, '98, Elgin, Principal Eugene C. Pierce.
Lake High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Edward F. Stearns.
Marshall High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Louis J. Block.
Ferry Hall Seminary, '00, Lake Forest, Principal Sabra L. Sargent.

WISCONSIN.

University of Wisconsin, c. m., Madison, President Chas. K. Adams.[1]
Beloit College, c. m., Beloit, President Edward D. Eaton.
Milwaukee-Downer College, '97, Milwaukee, President Ellen C. Sabin.
Milwaukee Academy, '97, Milwaukee, Principal J. H. Pratt.

MINNESOTA.

University of Minnesota, '96, Minneapolis, President Cyrus Northrup.

IOWA.

State University of Iowa, c. m., Iowa City, President Geo. E. MacLean.
Cornell College, c. m., Mt. Vernon, President Wm. F. King.
State Normal School, c. m., Cedar Falls, President Homer H. Seerley.
Iowa College, '95, Grinnell, President J. H. P. Main.
High School, '01, Muscatine.

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[1] Deceased.

MISSOURI.

University of Missouri, c. m., Columbia, President Richard H. Jesse.
Washington University, c. m., St. Louis, Chancellor Winfield S. Chaplin.
Drury College, '98, Springfield, President Homer T. Fuller.
Missouri Valley College, '98, Marshall, President Wm. H. Black.
High School, '96, St. Louis, Principal Wm. J. S. Bryan.
Westminster College, '00, Fulton, President John H. MacCracken.
Mexico High School, '00, Mexico, Superintendent D. A. McMillan.
Manual Training High School, '00, Kansas City, Principal G. B. Morrison.
Mary Institute, '00, St. Louis, Principal E. H. Sears.
Kirkwood High School, '00, Kirkwood, Superintendent R. G. Kinkead.
Park College, '02, Parkville, President Lowell M. McAfee.

NEBRASKA.

University of Nebraska, '96, Lincoln, President E. Benj. Andrews.

KANSAS.

University of Kansas, '96, Lawrence, Chancellor Frank Strong.

COLORADO.

University of Colorado, '96, Boulder, President Jas. H. Baker.
Colorado College, '96, Colorado Springs, President W. F. Slocum.
High School No. 1, '96, Denver, Principal Wm. H. Smiley.

OKLAHOMA.

University of Oklahoma, '01, Norman, President David R. Boyd.

Individual Members.

OHIO.

Cady Staley, '95, President Case School, Cleveland.
Henry C. King, '96, Professor in Oberlin College, Oberlin.
Charles S. Howe, '02, Professor in Case School of Applied Science. Cleveland.

MICHIGAN.

W. W. Beman, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Francis W. Kelsey, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Fred N. Scott, '98, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
L. H. Jones, '95, President of State Normal, Ypsilanti.

INDIANA.

Clarence A. Waldo, '95, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.
Carl Leo Mees, '96, President of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute.

J. J. Mills, '99, President of Earlham College, Richmond.
Robert J. Aley, '99, Professor in Indiana University, Bloomington.
Edward Ayers, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.
W. W. Parsons, '99, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute.
Stanley Coulter, '01, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.
C. N. Kendall, '01, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis.
T. F. Moran, '02, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

S. A. Forbes, Dean, University of Illinois, Champaign.
A. V. E. Young, '95, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Thomas C. Chamberlin, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.
Harry P. Judson, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.
Marion Talbot, '97, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago.
Wm. A. Greeson, '97, Dean of Lewis Institute, Chicago.
F. W. Gunsaulus, '96, President of Armour Institute, Chicago.
U. S. Grant, '02, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Thomas F. Holgate, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
J. A. James, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
A. F. Nightingale, c. m., Chicago.

WISCONSIN.

Edward A. Birge, '96, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
M. V. O'Shea, '98, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
John B. Johnson, '99, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.[1]

MINNESOTA.

George B. Aiton, '97, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

F. Louis Soldan, '00, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
John R. Kirk, '98, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.
C. M. Woodward, '99, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.

KANSAS.

W. A. Davidson, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

AS AMENDED AT THE THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, APRIL 1, 1898.

ARTICLE I.

NAME.

The name of this Association shall be the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE II.

OBJECT.

The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States.

ARTICLE III.

MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1.—The members of the Association shall consist of the following two classes: First, colleges and universities, and secondary schools. Secondly, individuals identified with educational work within the limits of the Association.

Sec. 2.—Election to membership shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting, and shall be made only upon the nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3.—In the membership of the Association, the representation of higher and of secondary education shall be as nearly equal as possible.

Sec. 4.—An institutional member shall be represented at the meeting of the Association by its executive head, or by some one designated by him in credentials addressed to the Secretary.

Sec. 5.—No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than four years of secondary work.

Sec. 6.—No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study,

not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

Sec. 7.—No secondary school shall be eligible to membership which does not have a four years' course of study.

ARTICLE IV.

POWERS.

All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

ARTICLE V.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

Section 1.—The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents from each state represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and four other members elected by the Association.

Sec. 2.—The officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting for the term of one year, or until their successors are elected. The election shall be by ballot.

Sec. 3.—The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint committees for conference with other bodies, whenever in their judgment it may seem expedient.

Sec. 4.—In case an officer holding office as representative of an institutional member severs his connection with the institution represented, he shall at his discretion hold his office until the close of the next regular meeting of the Association.

Sec. 5.—The Executive Committee shall have authority to fill a vacancy in any office, the officer elected by the committee to hold office until the close of the next annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

Section 1.—The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents selected by the Executive Committee, shall preside at the meetings of the Association, and shall sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

Sec. 2.—The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the Association and attend to all necessary correspondence and printing.

Sec. 3.—The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

Sec. 4.—The Executive Committee shall make all nominations for membership in the Association, fix the time of all meetings not otherwise provided for, prepare programmes, and act for the Association when it is not in session. All the acts of the Executive Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association and such special meetings as the Association may appoint.

ARTICLE VIII.

MEMBERSHIP FEE.

To meet expenses, an annual fee of $3.00 shall be paid by each member, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.

QUORUM.

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.

AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meeting.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1902-1903.

PRESIDENT.

George N. Carman, Director of Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

Ohio.

Chas. F. Thwing, President of Western Reserve University, Cleveland.

E. W. Coy, Principal of Hughes High School, Cincinnati.

Michigan.

Francis W. Kelsey, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

F. L. Bliss, Principal of the Detroit University School, Detroit.

Indiana.

Joseph Swain, President of the University of Indiana, Bloomington.

Edward Ayres, Superintendent, Lafayette.

Illinois.

W. R. Harper, President of the University of Chicago, Chicago.
A. F. Nightingale, Superintendent of Schools of Cook County, Chicago.

Wisconsin.

E. A. Birge, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
A. W. Tressler, Inspector of High Schools, Madison.

Minnesota.

W. N. West, Professor in the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
F. A. Weld, President of the Moorhead Normal School, Moorhead.

Iowa.

Wm. F. King, President of Cornell College, Mt. Vernon.
H. H. Seerley, President of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls.

Missouri.

M. S. Snow, Professor in the Washington University, St. Louis.
W. J. S. Bryan, Principal of the High School, St. Louis.

Nebraska.

E. B. Andrews, President of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
H. J. Davenport, Principal of the High School, Lincoln.

Kansas.

F. H. Snow, Professor in the University of Kansas, Lawrence.
W. A. Davidson, Superintendent, Topeka.

Colorado.

J. H. Baker, President of the University of Colorado.
W. H. Smiley, Principal of High School No. 1, Denver.

SECRETARY.

F. N. Scott, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

TREASURER.

Jas. E. Armstrong, Principal of Englewood High School, Chicago.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The President, Secretary, Treasurer, and
C. A. Waldo, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.
E. L. Harris, Principal of the Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
J. R. Kirk, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.
G. E. MacLean, President of the University of Iowa, Iowa City.

REGISTRATION.

Albright, C. E. Central High School, Columbus, Ohio.
Allen, Dudley P., Professor. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Anderson, H. S. University School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Armstrong, J. E., Principal. Englewood High School, Chicago.
Ayres, Edw., Superintendent. Lafayette, Indiana.
Baker, J. H., President. University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.
Ballou, C. G., Principal. Central High School, Toledo, Ohio.
Barrett, Chas. S. South High School, Columbus, Ohio.
Barrows, J. H., President. Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
Bedgood, R. K. High School, Lafayette, Indiana.
Bell, Miss Daisy. High School, Wellington, Ohio.
Beman, W. W., Professor. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
Benjamin, Chas. H. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Bill, Clarence P. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Black, W. H., President. Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Missouri.
Bliss, F. L. Detroit University School, Detroit, Michigan.
Bridgman, W. R. Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Illinois.
Brown, Abram. East High School, Columbus, Ohio.
Brown, J. F. State University of Iowa, Iowa City.
Bryan, W. J. S., Principal. Normal and High School, St. Louis, Missouri.
Bryan, Mrs. W. J. S. St. Louis, Missouri.
Carman, Geo. N., Director. Lewis Institute, Chicago.

Coy, E. W., Principal. Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Curtis, M. W. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Dean, E. P. High School, Ashland, Ohio.
Denney, Joseph V., Professor. Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
Dickerman, John. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Dougherty, N. C., Superintendent. Peoria, Illinois.
Draper, A. S., President. University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.
Eagleson, S. 691 East Prospect St., Cleveland, Ohio.
Ebert, H. M. High School, Elyria, Ohio.
Everett, Chas. D. North High School, Columbus, Ohio.
Fife, Robert H., Jr. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Foote, Alice M. High School, Oberlin, Ohio.
Foote, Eunice S. Oberlin, Ohio.
Frederick, J. M. H. High School, Lakewood, Ohio.
French, C. H. 84 Arlington St., Cleveland, Ohio.
Garbutt, I. R. Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Gilpatrick, J. L. Denison University, Granville, Ohio.
Graber, Philip E. High School, Akron, Ohio.
Grant, U. S. Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
Griffin, L E. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Griswold, Wells L. Rayen High School, Youngstown, Ohio.
Harlan, Richard D., President. Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Illinois.
Harris, Edward L., Principal. Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Hartwell, S. O., Superintendent. Kalamazoo, Michigan.
Hickok, Chas. T. Western Reserve Academy, Hudson, Ohio.
Hieronymus, Robert E., President. Eureka College, Eureka, Illinois.

Hitchcock, Miss C. M. Lake Erie College, Painesville, Ohio.
Hobbie, Jas. G. Central Institute, Cleveland, Ohio.
Hood, Albert C. Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Howe, Chas. S. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Johnson, G. E. University School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Johnson, J. S., Superintendent. Salem, Ohio.
Johnston, Theo. H., Principal. West High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Jones, Franklin I. South High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Jones, George N. Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
Judson, Harry Pratt, Dean. University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.
King, H. C., Professor. Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
Kirk, John R., President. Kirksville Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.
Knight, Chas. M. Buchtel College, Akron, Ohio.
La Shell, Lewis L. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Lehman, D. A. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Lewis, M. F. High School, Geneva, Ohio.
Locke, Geo. Herbert. University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.
Loomis, Elisha S. West High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
McAfee, Lowell M., President. Park College, Parkville, Missouri.
McCollum, H. B. Geneva, Ohio.
MacCracken, John H., President. Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri.
McKean, T. L. West High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Maynard, Miss Vivian H. Glenville, Ohio.
Miller, E. A. High School, Oberlin, Ohio.
Mooney, Granville W. Grand River Institute, Austinburg, Ohio.
Morton, H. N. High School, Sandusky, Ohio.

Nightingale, A. F. 1997 Sheridan Road, Chicago, Ill.
Olin, Oscar E., Principal. Buchtel Academy, Akron, O.
Oliver, T. E. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Parkhurst, C. P. Columbus, Ohio.
Pearson, F. B. East High School, Columbus, Ohio.
Perrin, John W. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Phypers, Mrs. G. W. 83 Knowles St., East Cleveland, O.
Rankin, Homes D. High School, Euclid, Ohio.
Rice, Edw. L. Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, O.
Rogers, Geo. E., Superintendent. Jefferson Educational Institute, Jefferson, Ohio.
Rybolt, D. C., Principal. High School, Akron, Ohio.
St. John, C. E., Professor. Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.
Scott, F. N., Professor. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
Shauer, J. C. Lake Forest Academy, Lake Forest, Ill.
Shaw, John T. Oberlin Academy, Oberlin, Ohio.
Sheffield, A. D. University School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Sluss, H. O. Western Reserve Academy, Hudson, Ohio.
Smiley, Jas. B. Lincoln High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Smith, Chas. J. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Snow, Marshall S. Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
Spanton, A. I. Buchtel Academy, Akron, Ohio.
Staley, Cady, President. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Stevens, C. E. South High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Stewart, N. Coe. Rose Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
Streich, Albert C. Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Swain, Joseph, President. University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana.
Thwing, Chas. F., President. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

Thorndike, A. H. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Tower, O. F. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Treudley, F. Youngstown, Ohio.
Turner, A. E., President. Waynesburg College, Waynesburg, Pennsylvania.
Twiss, George R. Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Upton, Ralph R. High School, Chillicothe, Ohio.
Van Horn, Frank R. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.
Waldo, C. A., Professor. Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.
Ward, T. D. Lorain, Ohio.
Webster, Mary S. High School, Geneva, Ohio.
Whitman, Frank P. Adelbert College, Cleveland, Ohio.
Whitney, A. S., Professor. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
Whitney, Frank P. High School, Collinwood, Ohio.
Williams, H. B. High School, Sandusky, Ohio.
Wolcott, Emil P. High School, Akron, Ohio.
Wood, Herbert C. East High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Woodward, C. M., Professor. Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
Wright, A. S. Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio.

APPENDIX TO THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL STATES
1902

REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
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NOTICE.

The following pages form part of the Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The price of this volume of the Proceedings entire is twenty-five cents. The price of the Appendix, printed separately, is ten cents. Copies of either may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Principal J. E. Armstrong, Englewood High School, Chicago.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMISSION.

At the sixth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, a paper was read by Dean S. A. Forbes, of the University of Illinois, on "The Desirability of so Federating the North Central Colleges and Universities as to Secure Essentially Uniform or at Least Equivalent Entrance Requirements."[1]

As the outcome of the paper and the discussion which followed it, a committee consisting of Dean S. A. Forbes, of the University of Illinois (chairman); President Cady Staley, of the Case School of Applied Science; President W. R. Harper, of the University of Chicago; Principal C. G. Ballou, of the Toledo High School; and Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University, was appointed by the Association, March 29, 1901, to take into consideration and to report, on the following day, some plan of action embodying the idea outlined by Dean Forbes and the suggestions thrown out in the course of the discussion of the paper.

The report of the committee was as follows:

To the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

Your committee has considered the subject assigned to it as carefully as the brief time at our disposal would permit and under a sense of responsibility, we hope, corresponding to the importance of the subject. We have not

[1] Printed in full in the Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, pp. 11–21.

attempted to reach conclusions, or even to raise questions, on any of the issues involved in the establishment of fixed and uniform relations between the colleges and secondary schools, but have thought it best to leave the whole matter, subject to the instructions of the Association, to a permanent commission, whose appointment we recommend. This Commission we have sought to make thoroughly representative, thoroughly responsible and practically efficient; and we believe that, if constituted in some such form as proposed, and inspired by the colleges with a determination to reach tangible results without delay, it will prove to be a very influential and important agency of educational progress. The propositions of the committee are presented in the following recommendation:

We recommend that the Association do now proceed to the establishment of some definite form of affiliation and credit, as fixed, comprehensive, and uniform as may be, between the colleges and universities of this Association and the secondary schools of the North Central states, and to this end we make the following recommendations:

(1) That a permanent commission be formed to be called the *Commission on Accredited Schools* and to consist, first, of twelve members to be appointed by the Chair, six from the colleges and six representing the secondary schools; and second, of additional or delegate members one from each college or university belonging to the Association which has a freshman class of at least fifty members and which may appoint such a representative, together with a sufficient number of members from the secondary schools, to be appointed by the Chair, to maintain a parity of representation as between the secondary schools and the colleges. The term of service of the twelve members of the first class should be three years, two college representatives and two representatives of the secondary schools to be now appointed for one year, two

of each for two years, and two of each for three years; and vacancies to be filled in the same manner as the original appointments are made. The appointment of additional high school members should be for one year, subject, of course, to renewal by the appointing officer. We suggest that the President of this Association serve as temporary chairman of this Commission until it has met and organized by the selection of its own officers.

(2) That it be made the duty of this Commission to define and describe unit courses of study in the various subjects of the high school programme, taking for the point of departure the recommendations of the National Committee of Thirteen; to serve as a standing committee on uniformity of admission requirements for the colleges and universities of this Association; to take steps to secure uniformity in the standards and methods, and economy of labor and expense, in the work of high school inspection; to prepare a list of high schools within the territory of this Association which are entitled to the accredited relationship; and to formulate and report methods and standards for the assignment of college credit for good high school work done in advance of the college entrance requirement.

(3) We recommend that the expenses necessarily attendant upon the work of this Commission be assumed by the colleges represented on it in proportion to membership in their freshman classes.

The committee assumes that this Commission would usually hold at least annual meetings immediately preceding those of the Association itself, and in time to report its action to the Association for approval.

After considerable discussion the report was adopted without change. The president appointed the following persons as members of the Commission on Accredited Schools:

For one year: President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President John R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal School, Kirksville; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute, Chicago.

For two years: Dean Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago; Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University; Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Superintendent C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis.

For three years: Dean E. A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; President James H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland.

The Commission organized March 30, 1901, the following members being present: Messrs. MacLean, Baker, Harris, Whitney, Coulter, Kirk, and Carman.

Professor Judson was elected chairman of the Commission, and Director Carman, secretary. It was voted, (1) that a meeting of the Commission be held in Chicago in February, at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, (2) that the chairman delegate to the members of the Commission such duties as he may see fit, and (3) that the colleges of the Association be requested to appoint delegate members of the Commission not later than Dec. 15, 1901.

The second meeting of the Commission was held in Chicago, Feb. 25, 1902. There was a general discussion of plans, and it was agreed that four committees be appointed by the Chair. These committees were as follows:

1. Executive Committee: The Chairman and the Secretary of the Commission; Professor Coulter, of Purdue University; Principal Coy, of Cincinnati; and Superintendent Kendall, of Indianapolis.

2. Committee on Unit Courses of Study: Principal Bliss, of Detroit University School; Professor King, of Oberlin College; Professor Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; Principal French, of Hyde Park High School; and Director Carman, of Lewis Institute.

3. Committee on High School Inspection: Inspector Whitney, of Michigan; Inspector Aiton, of Minnesota; Inspector Tressler, of Wisconsin; Inspector Brown, of Iowa; and President Kirk, of Missouri.

4. Committee on College Credit for High School Work: Professor Denney, of Ohio State University; Professor Snow, of Washington University; Professor Vincent, of the University of Chicago; Principal Lane, of Fort Wayne High School; and Superintendent Nightingale, of Chicago.

After deciding upon plans of work for the several committees, the Commission adjourned to meet in Cleveland, March 27, 1902.

The third meeting of the Commission was held in Cleveland on the 27th of March, 1902. The committees reported in full, and their reports were exhaustively discussed, amended and adopted by the Commission.

The Commission presented its first annual report to the Association on March 28. After discussion and amendment it was adopted by the Association as herein presented, the reports of the sub-committees on Unit Courses of Study and on College Credit for High School Work being incorporated in it. The report of the subcommittee on High School Inspection, though it forms part of the Report of the Commission, is appended as a separate document.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

UNIT COURSES IN GENERAL.

1. A unit course of study is defined as a course covering a school year of not less than thirty-five weeks, with four or five periods of at least forty-five minutes each per week.

2. The graduation requirement of the high school and the entrance requirement of the college shall include fifteen units as above defined.

3. All high school curricula and all requirements for college entrance shall include as constants three units of English and two units of mathematics.

COLLEGE CREDIT FOR WORK DONE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

1. The Commission favors the general principle that colleges should give advanced credit for secondary school work, when sufficient in amount and quality, done in addition to the fifteen units required for admission.

2. In the opinion of the Commission no advanced college credit should be given for less than one full year of secondary school work in any subject, except so far as half units are specified in the definitions of unit courses, or for any study that is not pursued later than the second year of the high school course.

3. The amount of advanced credit to be awarded in any subject should be determined by the college which the student enters.

UNIT COURSES IN PARTICULAR SUBJECTS.

English (3 units).

The three units in English should cover the following subjects:

(a) *Grammar.* The student should have a sufficient

knowledge of English grammar to enable him at need to point out the syntactical structure of any sentence which he encounters in the prescribed reading. He should also be able to state intelligently the leading grammatical principles when he is called upon to do so. Whether this knowledge is obtained in the elementary school and the secondary school combined or only in the elementary school is immaterial, provided the student have it; but in most cases it cannot be acquired except through regular study and practice in the lower grades and occasional reviews in the higher, and scarce through these. A progressive and regular development of the grammar-sense from the lowest grades to the highest is much to be preferred to a sudden and unprepared-for injection of formal grammar at a particular stage, as, for example, in the eighth grade.

(b) *Reading.* The books prescribed by the Joint Committee on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English form the basis for this part of the work. It is expected that all students shall read these books intelligently and appreciatively, but it is important to understand that the list is prescribed neither as a maximum nor as a minimum requirement. Rather these books are intended to serve as a common center from which each school shall proceed with such wider courses of English study as it may find profitable. It is taken for granted that each school will arrange for a considerable amount of outside reading supplementary to the prescribed readings.

The list, as arranged by the Joint Committee on Entrance Requirements in English, is divided into two parts, the first consisting of books to be read with attention to their contents rather than to their form, the second consisting of books to be studied thoroughly and minutely. The lists, thus divided, are as follows:

I. BOOKS PRESCRIBED FOR READING.

For 1903, 1904, and 1905: Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice* and *Julius Caesar;* The *Sir Roger De Coverley Papers* in the Spectator; Goldsmith's *The Vicar of Wakefield;* Coleridge's *The Ancient Mariner;* Scott's *Ivanhoe;* Carlyle's *Essay on Burns;* Tennyson's *The Princess;* Lowell's *The Vision of Sir Launfal;* George Eliot's *Silas Marner.*

For 1906, 1907, and 1908: Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice and Macbeth;* The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers in *The Spectator;* Irving's *Life of Goldsmith;* Coleridge's *The Ancient Mariner;* Scott's *Ivanhoe* and *The Lady of the Lake;* Tennyson's *Gareth and Lynette, Lancelot and Elaine,* and *The Passing of Arthur;* Lowell's *The Vision of Sir Launfal;* Georgie Eliot's *Silas Marner.*

II. BOOKS PRESCRIBED FOR STUDY AND PRACTICE.

For 1903, 1904, and 1905: Shakespeare's *Macbeth;* Milton's *Lycidas, Comus, L'Allegro, and Il Penseroso;* Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America;* Macaulay's *Essays on Milton and Addison.*

For 1906, 1907, and 1908: Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar;* Milton's *Lycidas, Comus, L'Allegro and Il Penseroso;* Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America;* Macaulay's *Essay on Addison* and *Life of Johnson.*

With reference to the second list, the Joint Committee recommends that each of the books prescribed for study be taught with reference to subject matter, form and structure; and that, in addition, attention be given to the essentials of English grammar and to the leading facts in those periods of English literary history to which the prescribed works belong.

The above lists and requirements are intended to indicate in a general way the extent and character of the

required work, and are not to be interpreted as limitations upon the teacher's choice. Books of equal merit, covering a similar range of literary types, will meet the requirements satisfactorily.

(*c*) *Composition.* Regular and persistent training in both written and oral composition should be given throughout the entire school course. In the high school, instruction in this subject should not be broken up into term or semester courses, but should be regarded as continuous throughout the four years. As regards the subjects for composition, they should be taken in the high school course partly from the list of books prescribed for study and practice, or from other literature which the class may read; partly from the student's own thought and experience. The topics should be so chosen as to give practice in the four leading types of prose discourse, namely, Description, Narration, Exposition and Argument.

(*d*) *Rhetoric.* It is expected that the student will be familiar with the essential principles of rhetoric. The instruction in this subject should begin early in the high school course in connection with the work in composition, and should include the following particulars: choice of words; structure of sentences and paragraphs; the principles of narration, description, exposition and argument. The teacher should distinguish between those parts of rhetorical theory which are retained in text-books merely through the influence of tradition and those which have direct bearing upon the composition work. The former may be safely omitted.

Mathematics (4 units).

In mathematics the commission adopts the statement of the College Entrance Examination Board, except that a somewhat smaller portion in algebra is assigned to the first year, and a review of essentials is recommended in connection with the advanced course in algebra.

1. *Algebra.* The four fundamental operations for rational algebraic expressions, factoring, highest common factor, lowest common multiple, complex fractions, the solution of equations of the first degree containing one or more unknown quantities, radicals, including the extraction of the square root of polynomials and numbers, and fractional and negative exponents. Quadratic equations and equations containing one or more unknown quantities that can be solved by the methods of quadratic equations, problems depending upon such equations.

2. *Plane Geometry,* including the solution of simple original exercises and numerical problems.

3a. *Algebra.* A review of the essentials to be followed by ratio and proportion, and the binomial theorem for positive integral exponents. The progressions, the elementary treatment of permutations and combinations, and the use of four and five place tables of logarithms.

3b. *Solid Geometry,* including properties of straight lines and planes, of dihedral and polyhedral angles, of projections, of polyhedrons, including prisms, pyramids and the regular solids, of cylinders, cones and spheres, of spherical triangles, and the measurement of surfaces and solids.

4a. *Algebra.* Undetermined coefficients, the elementary treatment of infinite series, the binomial theorem for fractional and negative exponents, and the theory of logarithms.

Determinants, and the elements of the theory of equations, including Horner's method for solving numerical equations.

4b. *Trigonometry.* Plane Trigonometry, including the definitions and relations of the six trigonometrical functions as ratios, proof of important formulæ, theory of logarithms and use of tables, solution of right and oblique plane triangles. Spherical Trigonometry, including the

proof of important formulæ and the solution of right and oblique spherical triangles with the proper interpretation of the ambiguous cases.

History (4 units).

1. Ancient history, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, and including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations and the chief events of the early middle ages, down to the death of Charlemagne (814).

2. Mediæval and modern European history, from the death of Charlemagne to the present time.

3. English history.

4. American history, or American history and civil government.

The periods that are here indicated as constituting the four units were recommended by the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association in their report to the Association in 1899. The full report is published under the title "The Study of History in Schools." It contains suggestions as to various methods of treating these periods, and gives further information likely to be of service to the teacher. A short course of one year in general history of the world has been in a great measure abandoned by the schools, because it does not give the opportunity for the more concrete study and for the training in historical thinking that can be obtained from the more intensive work. The plan of continuing ancient history to the time of Charlemagne or the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire has much to commend it, and is now adopted in many schools. Excellent books have been prepared which will enable the teachers to cover the field, as a whole, satisfactorily. By continuing the study of ancient history down into the early middle ages, a reasonable adjustment of time between the earlier and later

periods is secured; and from the purely historical as well as the pedagogical point of view, there is much to be said in favor of connecting Roman history with the later times; the pupil is not left in the confusion of the fallen or the decadent empire. In connection with a year's work in American history much instruction can be given in civil government; a course dwelling on the development of American political ideals and the actual workings of institutions necessarily gives information concretely of the present governmental forms and methods.

No definite statement need be made concerning the mode of teaching or the apparatus that should be used. But it may be said that the mere learning of a text will not give the preparation that the colleges desire. Happily the time is gone when teachers are inclined to confine their classes to the memorizing of a single text. Some colleges in their entrance examination expect the candidate to present note-books showing the amount and character of the work done in the schools. It is desirable that note-books or cards should be kept as a record of the work done. They may contain copious extracts from primary and secondary authorities, references to important material, sketch maps made by the pupils as illustrations of their studies, and informal notes on reading that has been done in connection with the course. Such work is necessary if the historical courses are to give their best educational results. Effort should be made to cultivate the power of handling facts and of drawing proper inductions from data, to develop the faculty of discrimination, to teach the pupils the use of books and how to extract substance from the printed page. The acquisition of information alone can not be the chief aim of any school work; knowledge of how to acquire information and, above all, some skill in putting forth what one knows must always be of more than secondary importance; history therefore should be taught as a disciplinary and educational subject.

Latin (4 units).

In Latin the commission adopts the first two units as defined by the American Philological Association, and the third and fourth units as defined by the College Entrance Examination Board.

1. Latin lessons, accompanied from an early stage by the reading of very simple selections. Easy reading: twenty to thirty pages of consecutive text.

In all written exercises the long vowels should be marked, and in all oral exercises pains should be taken to make the pronunciation conform to the quantities.

The student should be trained from the beginning to grasp the meaning of the Latin before translating, and then to render into idiomatic English; and should be taught to read the Latin aloud with intelligent expression.

2. Selections from Cæsar's Gallic War equivalent in amount to four books; selections from other prose writers, such as Nepos, may be taken as a substitute for an amount up to, but not exceeding, two books.

The equivalent of at least one period a week in prose composition based on Cæsar.

Reading aloud and translating, together with training in correct methods of apprehending the author's meaning, both prepared and unprepared passages being used as material. The memorizing of selected passages.

3, 4. Cicero: Any six orations from the following list, but preferably the first six mentioned:

The four orations against Catiline, Archias, the Manilian Law, Marcellus, Roscius, Milo, Sestius, Ligarius, the fourteenth Philippic.

Vergil: The first six books of the Aeneid.

The equivalent of at least one period a week in prose composition based on Cicero.

Note: In place of a part of Cicero an equivalent of Sallust's Catiline, and in place of a part of Vergil an equivalent of Ovid will be accepted.

Greek (3 units).

In Greek the definitions of the three units of the Philological Association are adopted.

1. Introductory lessons:
   Xenophon's Anabasis (20 to 30 pages).
   Practice in reading at sight and in writing Greek.
   Systematic study of grammar begun.

2. Xenophon's Anabasis (continued), either alone or with other Attic prose (75 to 120 pages).

Practice in reading at sight, systematic study of grammar, thorough grammatical review, and practice in writing Greek, both based on study of Books I and II of the Anabasis.

3. Homer (2,500 to 4,000 lines); e. g., Iliad, I-III (omitting II, 494-end), and VI-VIII.

Attic prose (33 to 40 pages), with practice in writing Greek; grammar; practice reading at sight.

French (4 units).

The definitions of the four units in French and the four units in German are those recommended by the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association.

1. During the first year the work should comprise: (1) careful drill in pronunciation; (2) the rudiments of grammar, including the inflection of the regular and the more common irregular verbs, the plural of nouns, the inflection of adjectives, participles, and pronouns; the use of personal pronouns, common adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions; the order of words in the sentence, and the elementary rules of syntax; (3) abundant easy exercises, designed not only to fix in the memory the forms and principles of grammar, but also to cultivate readiness in the reproduction of natural forms of expression; (4)

the reading of from 100 to 175 duodecimo pages of graduated texts, with constant practice in translating into French easy variations of the sentences read (the teacher giving the English), and in reproducing from memory sentences previously read; (5) writing French from dictation.

2. During the second year the work should comprise: (1) the reading of from 250 to 400 pages of easy modern prose in the form of stories, plays, or historical or biographical sketches; (2) constant practice, as in the previous year, in translating into French easy variations upon the texts read; (3) frequent abstracts, sometimes oral and sometimes written, of portions of the text already read; (4) writing French from dictation; (5) continued drill upon the rudiments of grammar, with constant application in the construction of sentences; (6) mastery of the forms and use of pronouns, pronominal adjectives, of all but the rare irregular verb forms, and of the simpler uses of the conditional and subjunctive.

Suitable texts for the second year are: About's *Le roi des montagnes,* Bruno's *Le tour de la France,* Daudet's easier short tales, La Bedolliere's *La Mère Michel et son chat,* Erckmann-Chatrian's stories, Foa's *Contes biographiques* and *Le Petit Robinson de Paris,* Foncin's *Le pays de France,* Labiche and Martin's *La poudre aux yeux* and *Le voyage de M. Perrichon,* Legouvé and Labiche's *La cigale chez les fourmis,* Malot's *Sans famille,* Mairet's *La tache du petit Pierre,* Merimee's *Colomba,* extracts from Michelet, Sarcey's *Le siége de Paris,* Verne's stories.

3. This should comprise the reading of from 400 to 600 pages of French of ordinary difficulty, a portion to be in the dramatic form; constant practice in giving French paraphrases, abstracts or reproductions from memory of selected portions of the matter read; the study of a grammar of moderate completeness; writing from dictation.

Suitable texts are: About's stories, Augier and Sandeau's *Le Gendre de M. Poirier,* Beranger's poems, Corneille's *Le Cid* and *Horace,* Coppee's poems. Daudet's *La Belle-Nivernaise,* La Brète's *Mon oncle et mon curé,* Madame de Sévigné's letters, Hugo's *Hernani* and *La chute,* Labiche's plays, Loti's *Pêcheur d'Islande,* Mignet's historical writings, Moliere's *L'avare* and *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme,* Racine's *Athalie, Andromaque,* and *Esther,* George Sand's plays and stories, Sandeau's *Mademoiselle de la Seiglière,* Scribe's plays, Thierry's *Récits des temps mérovingiens.* Thiers' *L'expédition de Bonaparte en Egypte.* Vigny's *La canne de jonc,* Voltaire's historical writings.

4. This should comprise the reading of from 600 to 1,000 pages of standard French, classical and modern, only difficult passages being explained in the class; the writing of numerous short themes in French; the study of syntax. One unit.

Suitable reading matter will be: Beaumarchias's *Barbier de Seville;* Corneille's dramas; the elder Dumas's prose writings; the younger Dumas's *La question d'argent;* Hugo's *Ruy Blas,* lyrics and prose writings; La Fontaine's fables; Lamartine's *Graziella;* Marivaux's plays; Moliere's plays; Musset's plays and poems; Pellissier's *Mouvement littéraire au XIXe siècle;* Renan's *Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse;* Rousseau's writings; Sainte-Beuve's essays; Taine's *Origines de la France contemporaine;* Voltaire's writings; selections from Zola, Maupassant, and Balzac.

German (4 units.)

1. During the first year the work should comprise: (1) careful drill upon pronunciation; (2) the memorizing and frequent repetition of easy colloquial sentences; (3) drill upon the rudiments of grammar, that is, upon the inflection of the articles, of such nouns as belong to the

language of everyday life, of adjectives, pronouns, weak verbs, and the more usual strong verbs; also upon the use of the more common prepositions, the simpler uses of the modal auxiliaries, and the elementary rules of syntax and word-order; (4) abundant easy exercises designed not only to fix in mind the forms and principles of grammar, but also to cultivate readiness in the reproduction of natural forms of expression: (5) the reading of from 75 to 100 pages of graduated texts from a reader, with constant practice in translating into German easy variations upon sentences selected from the reading lesson (the teacher giving the English), and in the reproduction from memory of sentences previously read.

2. During the second year the work should comprise: (1) the reading of from 150 to 200 pages of literature in the form of easy stories and plays; (2) accompanying practice, as before, in the translation into German of easy variations upon the matter read, and also in the off-hand reproduction, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, of the substance of short and easy selected passages; (3) continued drill upon the rudiments of the grammar, directed to the ends of enabling the pupil, first, to use his knowledge with facility in the formation of sentences, and, secondly, to state his knowledge correctly in the technical language of grammar.

Stories suitable for the elementary course can be selected from the following list: Andersen's *Maerchen* and *Bilderbuch ohne Bilder;* Arnold's *Fritz auf Ferien;* Baumbach's *Die Nonna* and *Der Schwiegersohn;* Gerstaecker's *Germelshausen;* Heyse's *L'Arrabbiata, Das Maedchen von Treppi,* and *Anfang und Ende;* Hillern's *Hoeher als die Kirche;* Jensen's *Die braune Erica;* Leander's *Traeumereien,* and *Kleine Geshichten;* Seidel's *Maerchen;* Stoekl's *Unter dem Christbaum;* Storm's *Immensee* and *Geschichten aus der Tonne;* Zschokke's *Der zerbrochene Krug.*

Good plays adapted to the elementary course are much harder to find than good stories. Five-act plays are too long. They require more time than it is advisable to devote to any one text. Among shorter plays the best available are perhaps Benedix's *Der Prozess, Der Weiberfeind,* and *Guenstige Vorzeichen;* Elz's *Er ist nicht eifersuechtig;* Wichert's *An der Majorsecke;* Wilhelmi's *Einer muss heiraten.* It is recommended, however, that not more than one of these plays be read. The narrative style should predominate. A good selection of reading matter for the second year would be Andersen's *Maerchen,* or *Bilderbuch,* or Leander's *Traeumereien,* to the extent of, say, forty pages. After that such a story as *Das kalte Herz;* or, *Der zerbrochene Krug;* then *Hoeher als die Kirche,* or *Immensee;* next a good story by Heyse, Baumbach, or Seidel: lastly *Der Prozess.*

3. The work should comprise, in addition to the elementary course, the reading of about 400 pages of moderately difficult prose and poetry, with constant practice in giving, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, paraphrases, abstracts, or reproductions from memory of selected portions of the matter read; also grammatical drill upon the less usual strong verbs, the use of articles, cases, auxiliaries of all kinds, tenses and modes (with special reference to the infinitive and subjunctive), and likewise upon word-order and word-formation.

Suitable reading for the third year can be selected from such works as the following: Ebner-Eschenbach's *Die Freiherren von Gemperlein;* Freytag's *Die Journalisten* and *Bilder aus der deutschen Vergangenheit*—for example *Karl der Grosse, Aus den Kreuzzuegen, Doktor Luther, Aus dem Staat Friedrich's des Grossen;* Fouqué's *Undine;* Gerstaecker's *Irrefahrten;* Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea* and *Iphigenie;* Heine's poems and *Reisebilder;* Hoffmann's *Historische Erzaehlungen;* Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm;* Meyer's *Gustav Adolf's Page;* Moser's

Der Bibliothekar; Riehl's *Novellen*—for example, *Burg Neideck, Der Fluch der Schoenheit, Der stumme Ratsherr, Das Spielmannkind;* Rosegger's *Waldheimat;* Schiller's *Der Neffe als Onkel, Der Geisterseher, Wilhelm Tell, Die Jungfrau von Orleans, Das lied von der Glocke, Balladen;* Scheffel's *Der Trompeter von Saekkingen;* Uhland's poems; Wildenbruch's *Das edle Blut.*

4. The work of the fourth year should comprise the reading of about five hundred pages of good literature in prose and poetry, reference readings upon the lives and works of the great writers studied, the writing in German of numerous short themes upon assigned subjects, independent translation of English into German.

Spanish (2 units).

In Spanish the commission adopts the definitions of the two units of the College Entrance Examination Board, which are in close harmony with the definitions of French and German of the Modern Language Association.

1. During the first year the work should comprise (1) careful drill in pronunciation; (2) the rudiments of grammar, including the conjugation of the regular and the more common irregular verbs, the inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns, and the elementary rules of syntax; (3) exercises containing illustrations of the principles of grammar; (4) the reading and accurate rendering into good English of from 100 to 175 duodecimo pages of graduated texts, with translation into Spanish of easy variations of the sentences read; (5) writing Spanish from dictation.

2. During the second year the work should comprise: (1) the reading of from 250 to 400 pages of modern prose from different authors; (2) practice in translating Spanish into English, and English variations of the text into Spanish; (3) continued study of the elements of grammar and syntax; (4) mastery of all but the rare

irregular verb forms and of the simpler uses of the modes and tenses; (5) writing Spanish from dictation; (6) memorizing of easy short poems.

Suitable texts for the second year are: Valera's *El pajaro verde;* Alarcon's *El final de Norma;* Valdes's *José;* Galdos's *Dona Perfecta, Marianela;* Padre Isla's version of *Gil Blas;* Carrion and Aza's *Zaragueta.*

Physics (1 unit).

It is recommended that the candidate's preparation in physics should include:

(*a*) Individual laboratory work, comprising at least thirty-five exercises selected from a list of sixty or more, not very different from the list given below.

(*b*) Instruction by lecture-table demonstrations, to be used mainly as a basis for questioning upon the general principles involved in the pupil's laboratory investigations.

(*c*) The study of at least one standard text-book, supplemented by the use of many and varied numerical problems, to the end that a pupil may gain a correct and comprehensive view of the method of physical science.

FIRST PART.

Mechanics and Hydrostatics—Weight of unit volume of a substance; Lifting effect of water upon a body entirely immersed in it; Specific gravity of a solid body that will sink in water; Specific gravity of a block of wood by use of a sinker; Weight of water displaced by a floating body; Specific gravity by flotation method; Specific gravity of a liquid (two methods); The straight lever: first class; Center of gravity and weight of a lever; Levers of the second and third classes; Force exerted at the

fulcrum of a lever; Errors of a spring balance; Parallelogram of forces; Friction between solid bodies (on a level); Coefficient of friction (by sliding on incline).

Light—Use of photometer; Images in a plane mirror; Images formed by a convex cylindrical mirror; Images formed by a concave cylindrical mirror; Index of refraction of glass; Index of refraction of water; Focal length of a converging lens; Conjugate foci of a lens; Shape and size of a real image formed by a lens; Virtual image formed by a lens.

SECOND PART.

Mechanics—Breaking-strength of a wire; Comparisons of wires in breaking tests; Elasticity: stretching; Elasticity: bending; effect of varying loads; Elasticity: bending; effect of varying dimensions; Elasticity: twisting; Specific gravity of a liquid by balancing columns; Compressibility of air: Boyle's law; Density of air; Four forces at right angles in one plane; Comparison of masses by acceleration test; Action and reaction; elastic collision, Elastic collision continued: inelastic collision.

Heat—Testing a mercury thermometer; Linear expansion of a solid; Increase of pressure of a gas heated at constant volume; Increase of volume of a gas heated at constant pressure; Specific heat of a solid; Latent heat of melting; Determination of the dew-point; Latent heat of vaporization.

Sound—Velocity of sound; Wave-length of sound; Number of vibrations of a tuning-fork.

Electricity and Magnetism—Lines of force near a bar magnet; Study of a single-fluid galvanic cell; Study of a two-fluid galvanic cell; Lines of force about a galvanoscope; Resistance of wires by substitution: various lengths; Resistance of wires by substitution: cross-section and multiple arc; Resistance by Wheatstone's bridge; Specific resistance of copper; Temperature-coefficient of

resistance in copper; Battery resistance; Putting together the parts of a telegraph key and sounder; Putting together the parts of a small motor; Putting together the parts of a small dynamo.

Chemistry (1 unit).

Chemistry is an art as well as a science. Acquaintance with its elements includes ability to *do* certain things *intelligently* as well as remembrance of the bare results of chemical changes. An organized account of the latter is only a sort of dessicated residuum if it is not illuminated by the experience acquired along with skill in the former. The books usually—and necessarily—give prominence to the second (the systematic aspect), leaving instruction in the art to the teacher. A requirement in chemistry, on the other hand, must emphasize the art, for it is universal. It will lay less stress on any particular list of substances, reactions, or topics, in view of the extent of the available material, the briefness of the school course and the consequent differences between equally good individual selections. The art cannot, of course, be acquired without a fair systematic knowledge, while a semblance of the systematic knowledge may be acquired without the art. The art is therefore more worthy of emphasis.

It will be noted that the art of chemistry consists in the practical knowledge of the physical properties of all kinds of matter and the utilization of this knowledge in arranging intelligently the conditions before chemical change, in noting all physical indications during experiment and distinguishing the significant ones, and in interpreting the result of this observation. It thus deals almost exclusively with physical conceptions and facts. It demands, therefore, a careful training in physical facts, physical observation and physical inference. Conventionalized chemical work which can progress without skill in

this art (for example, reiterated observation of precipitations) is valueless.

Disregarding questions of order, and simply classifying the essential principles of instruction, the pupil should be taught:

1. *Technique of experimentation.*

   Properties of common apparatus in respect to structure and material. For example, how to make an apparatus air-tight and why. Object of such operations as washing and drying gases and how the object is attained.

   Physical properties which may be used for recognition of each substance and for explanation of all observations.

   Judicious use of proportions and materials. Influence of conditions (temperature, homogeneous and heterogeneous mixture, etc.) on chemical change.

2. Physical phenomena, their recognition, description, and physical interpretation.

3. The more strictly *chemical application* of the results. For example, inference in regard to the nature of the chemical change which must have led to the results observed. Making of the chemical equation from adequate data.

The material basis for the above may be found for the most part in the employment of a restricted number of elements and a few of their chief compounds. Facts should be simplified and systematized by generalization, and generalizations ("laws") should be illustrated and applied to familiar things. The usual theoretical explanations should be given as the facts accumulate. Laws and theories derive their importance from the facts, not *vice versa,* and none should be given unless and until the corresponding facts have been encountered in laboratory or class-room experiments.

A knowledge of important chemical industries and ability to work simple problems will be expected.

The teacher is referred for a list of suitable topics to the Report of the N. E. A. Committee on College Entrance Requirements, or the entrance requirements of the College Entrance Board of the Middle States and Maryland. Many existing text-books cover the same ground.

Detailed discussion of the aims to be kept in view and the methods to be used in instruction will be found in Smith and Hall, *The Teaching of Chemistry and Physics in the Secondary School* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co.).

Physical Geography (1 unit).

The following outline includes only the most essential facts and principles of physical geography, which must be studied in the class room and laboratory:

The Earth as a Globe.

- Shape of earth, how proved, consequences of shape.
- Size: how earth is measured; effects of size.
- Rotation: character of motion; latitude, longitude and time.
- Revolution: rate, path, direction and the consequences.
- Magnetism: compass, poles, variation.
- Map projection.

The Ocean.

- Form, divisions, and general characteristics of the ocean.
- Depth, density, temperature of ocean waters.
- Characteristics of ocean floor.
- Distribution of life in oceans.
- Movement of ocean waters.
  - Waves—Cause and effect.
  - Currents—causes, proofs of causes, important currents, effect of currents.

Tides—character of motion, cause of tides, variation of tides, bores.

Work of Ocean.

Classes of shore lines and importance of shore lines.

The Atmosphere.

Composition and offices of atmosphere.

Instruments used in study of atmosphere.

Temperature.

Source and variation of atmospheric temperatures.

Isothermal charts of world, January and July, with special study of isotherms of northern and southern hemispheres, of location of heat equator, of cold pole, of crowded isotherms, etc.

Pressure.

Measurement of pressure.

Use of pressure in altitude determinations.

Relation to temperature.

Study of isobars on U. S. Weather Map.

Distribution of pressure over world in January and July.

Relation of isobars to isotherms.

Circulation of atmosphere.

Winds, classes, directions, causes, effects.

Moisture.

Source, forms of, measurement of, precipitation.

Storms.

Paths and characters of storms of United States.

Daily weather at different seasons.

Relation of storms to general weather conditions.

Relation of weather to climate.

The Land.

- Several features of land as compared with ocean.
- Distribution of land.
- Map representation of topography.
- Changes in land forms, effects of elevation and depression.
- Plains.
  - Kinds of plains.
  - Characteristics of different kinds.
  - Development of plains.
  - Coastal plain of eastern United States in parts.
  - Alluvial plains, their formation and importance.
  - Relation of life conditions to different forms of plains.
- Plateaus.
  - Young plateaus.
  - Dissected plateaus.
  - Old plateaus.
  - Broken plateaus.
- Mountains.
  - Block mountains.
  - Folded mountains.
  - Domed mountains.
  - Massive mountains.
- Volcanoes.
  - Distribution.
  - Character of, at different stages.
- Rivers.
  - Life history of river—work of rivers, topography of valleys at different stages, lake and lake basins.
- Revived rivers.
  - Drowned valleys.
  - The great drainage basins of the United States.

Glaciers.
Existing ice sheets.
Kinds of glaciers.
Work of glaciers.
Characteristics of glaciated area of northern United States.

Summary.

Relation of man, plants, and animals, to climate, land forms, and oceanic areas.

The outline given can but present the larger topics to be covered, and in a way to suggest the point of view desired. Each topic should be treated so as to show its causal relations to other topics, and, so far as possible, the effects of earth features on life conditions should be emphasized.

The candidate's preparation should include:

a. The study of one of the leading secondary text books in physical geography, that a knowlege may be gained of the essential principles, and of well-selected facts illustrating those principles.

b. Individual laboratory work, comprising at least forty exercises. From one-third to one-half of the candidate's class-room work should be devoted to laboratory exercises. In the autumn and spring, field trips should take the place of laboratory exercises.

Botany (1 unit).

The following course is designed to include those topics in the leading divisions of the subject which are now regarded by most teachers as fundamental. Individual laboratory work by the student is essential, and should receive at least double the amount of time given to recitation.

The full year's course consists of two parts:

Part I. The general principles of (a) *Anatomy and Morphology,* (b) *Physiology and* (c) *Ecology.*

a. *In Anatomy and Morphology.*

The Seed. Four types (dicotyledon without and with endosperm, a monocotyledon and a gymnosperm); structure and homologous parts. Food supply; experimental determination of its nature and value. Phenomena of germination and growth of embryo into a seedling (including bursting from the seed, assumption of position and unfolding of parts).

The Shoot. Gross anatomy of a typical shoot, including the relationships of position of leaf, stem (and root), the arrangement of leaves and buds on the stem, and deviations (through light adjustment, etc.) from symmetry. Buds, and the mode of origin of new leaf and stem; winter buds in particular.

Specialized and metamorphosed shoots (stems and leaves). General structure and distribution of the leading tissues of the shoot; annual growth; shedding of bark and leaves.

The Root. Gross anatomy of a typical root; position and origin of secondary roots; hair-zone, cap and growing point.

Specialized and metamorphosed roots. General structure and distribution of the leading tissues of the root.

The Flower. Structure of a typical flower, especially of ovule and pollen; functions of the parts.

Comparative morphological study of six or more different marked types, with the construction of transverse and longitudinal diagrams.

The Fruit. Structure of a typical fruit, especially with reference to changes from the flower, and from ovule to seed. Comparative morphological study of six or more marked types, with diagrams.

The Cell. Cytoplasm, Nucleus, Sap-cavity, Wall. Adaptive modifications of walls, formation of tissues.

b. *In Physiology.*

Role of water in the plant; *absorption (osmosis), path of transfer, transpiration, turgidity and its mechanical value, plasmolysis.*

Photosynthesis; *dependence of starch formation upon chlorophyll, light and carbon dioxide; evolution of oxygen,* observation of starch grains.

Respiration; *necessity for oxygen in growth, evolution of carbon dioxide.*

Digestion; *digestion of starch with diastase,* and its role in translocation of foods.

Irritability; *Geotropism, heliotropism and hydrotropism;* nature of stimulus and response.

Growth; *localization in higher plants; amount in germinating seeds and stems; relationships to temperature.*

Fertilization; sexual and vegetative reproduction.

c. *In Ecology.*

Modifications (metamorphoses) of parts for special functions.

Dissemination.

Cross-pollination.

Light relations of green tissues; leaf mosaics.

Plant Societies; Mesophytes, Hydrophytes, Halophytes, Xerophytes; Climbers, Epiphytes, Parasites (and Saprophytes), Insectivora.

Plant Associations, and zonal distribution.

Part II. The Natural History of the Plant Groups, and Classification.

A comprehensive summary of the great natural groups of plants, based upon the thorough study of the structure, reproduction and adaptations to a habitat of one or two types from each group, supplemented and extended by more rapid study of other forms in those groups. Where living material is wanting for the latter, preserved material and even good pictures may be used, and a standard text-book should be thoroughly read. The general homologies from group to group should be noted.

In general in this part of the course much less attention should be given to the lower and inconspicuous groups, and progressively more to the higher and conspicuous forms.

Following is a list of recommended types from which, or their equivalents, selection may be made:

a *Algae,* Pleurococcus, Sphærella, Spirogyra, Vaucheria, Fucus, Nemalion (or Polysiphonia or Coleochæte).

b. *Fungi.* Bacteria, Mucor, Yeast, Puccinia (or any Powdery Mildew), Mushroom.

c. *Lichens,* Physcia (or Parmelia).

d. *Byrophytes.* In Hepaticæ, Radula or Porella or Marchantia). In Musci, Mnium (or Funaria or Polytrichum).

e. *Pteridophytes.* In Filicineae, Aspidium or equivalent, including, of course, the prothallus.
In Equesetineæ, Equisetum.
In Lycopodineæ, Lycopolidum and Selaginella (or Isoetes).

f. *Gymnosperms.* Pinus or equivalent.

g. *Angiosperms.* A monocotyledon and a dicotyledon, to be studied with reference to the homologies

of their parts with those in the above groups; together with representative plants of the leading subdivisions and principal families of Angiosperms.

Classification should include a study of the primary subdivisions of the above groups, based on the comparison of the types with other (preferably) living or preserved material. The principal subdivisions of the Angiosperms, grouped on the Engler and Prantl system, should be understood.

Biology (1 unit).

a. Work in botany as defined above, to the amount of one-half a unit.

b. Zoology: The study of not to exceed ten type forms.

The line of study to be followed for each form is indicated by the following analysis:

1. External anatomy: (1) General form and symmetry, regions, parts; (2) comparison with other individuals of the same species, emphasizing points of variation and constancy; (3) comparison with other types.

2. Observations on the living animal, simple physiological tests, emphasizing care with regard to the inferences drawn from the reactions.

3. Class topics, including talks by the teacher, selected readings, class work, analysis with results.

As a specific instance of the application to the individual form, the following is taken from the report of a member of the committee on zoology of the Department of Science of the N. E. A.:

BUTTERFLY.

Any one of various species whose larvæ can be obtained alive near the end of September may be employed. The cabbage butterfly (Pieris), the milkweed butterfly (Danais), or the swallow-tail butterfly (Papilio) will meet these conditions.

DRAWINGS.

1. Imago: dorsal view, wings expanded. X, 1 or 2.
2. Imago: left side, wings closed. (The bodies in 1 and 2 are to be drawn parallel to each other). X, 1 or 2.
3. Imago: front of head. X, 10.
4. Pupa: left side.
5. Full-grown larva: dorsal view.
6. Full-grown larva: left side.

QUESTIONS OF EXTERNAL ANATOMY.

1. How many segments behind the head in (*a*) the imago; (*b*) the larva; (*c*) the pupa?
2. What external organs of the imago can be identified in the pupa?
3. Which feet of the larva correspond with those of the imago?

OBSERVATIONS ON THE LIVING LARVA.

Each student (or group of students) should be provided with a glass vessel covered with netting and containing food leaves, for keeping the larva during pupation.

1. How is locomotion effected? Illustrate by diagrams.
2. How does the larva feed? Observe and record the movements of the mouthparts and of the head during feeding. Draw the outline of a partly eaten leaf.
3. (This observation must extend through several days.) Make and record observations upon the act of pupation.

TOPICS FOR THE TEACHER.

(1) The habits and food of butterflies. (2) The number of broods of butterflies during a single season and seasonal dimorphism. (3) Protective resemblance and mimicry. (4) The larger divisions and commoner native forms of lepidoptera. (Examples of lepidoptera illustrating the commoner native types should be shown, and stu-

dents encouraged to collect and classify them.) (5) The hymenoptera; their structure, classification, and habits.

In physics, chemistry, physical geography, botany, and biology the definitions are based on the recommendation of the Science Department of the N. E. A. and the requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL INSPECTION.

To the Commission on Accredited Schools:

Gentlemen: Your committee to whom was assigned for consideration the "steps necessary to secure uniformity in the standards and methods, and economy of labor and expense in the work of high school inspection," and also the "preparation of a list of high schools within the territory of this Association which are entitled to this accredited relationship," begs leave to report that it held a somewhat extended meeting in Chicago the day following the final adjournment of the Commission, deliberated upon the same as carefully as the time at its disposal and the importance of the subjects would admit, and offers the following as a result of its reflections:

I. As to standards. Your committee believes that the basal factor in any plan looking toward a reasonably uniform system of accredited schools is necessarily the course of study; but as the consideration of this problem has been referred to another committee, it has omitted it from its deliberations. Your committee has deemed it appropriate, however, to make certain recommendations concerning the standards of organization, teaching force, equipment, general efficiency, etc., required of schools admitted to the general list of accredited schools, and therefore submits the following:

1. That the minimum scholastic attainment of all high school teachers be the equivalent of graduation from a college belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, including special training in the subjects they teach, although such requirement shall not be construed as retroactive.

Your committee believes that the efficiency of the average college or university graduate is very materially enhanced by professional study, observation, and training in practice teaching under skilled supervision, and therefore advises that the accredited schools be urged to give due preference to teachers possessing such preparation.

2. Your committee advises that the number of daily periods of class-room instruction given by any one teacher should not exceed five, each to extend over a period of forty-five minutes.

3. That the laboratory and library facilities be adequate to the needs of instruction in the subjects taught as outlined in the report of the Commission.

4. That while the foregoing are exceedingly important factors affecting the quality of the work, the *esprit de corps,* the efficiency of the instruction, the acquired habits of thought and study, and the general intellectual and ethical tone of the school are of paramount importance, and therefore only schools which rank well in these particulars, as evidenced by rigid, thorough-going, sympathetic inspection, should be considered eligible to the list.

II. As to inspection. Your committee recommends that a board of five inspectors be appointed to ascertain the schools within the territory of the North Central Association entitled to the accredited relationship under the above limitations.

III. To facilitate the work of the board of inspectors in the preparation and submission of a list of high schools

justly entitled to this accredited relationship, your committee recommends:

1. That the Commission cause to be printed and distributed to the several inspectors of the colleges and universities of the North Central Association the following uniform blanks:

a. Principal's blank form for report relative to organization, teaching force, attendance, library, laboratory, etc. This report should be filled and returned to the inspector not later than November 1 of each year.

b. Inspector's blank forms for report of examination of each school.

c. Student's blank forms for recommendation to colleges and universities.

2. That it shall be the duty of the board of inspectors to submit to the secretary of the Commission the list of schools recommended by them as entitled to this relationship not later than June 1 of each year.

3. That it shall be the duty of the secretary of this Commission to publish the list submitted to him by the board of inspectors not later than June 10 of each year, and to cause the same to be distributed to the members of the North Central Association.

The committee believes that this list of schools should be an honor list for the North Central States, and, for that reason, has made specific recommendations with reference to requirements in the matter of organization, equipment, teaching force, and standards of scholarship. When once this system has been thoroughly organized and systematized, it may be found practicable to extend the privileges of accredited relationship to smaller schools, but the committee recommends that nothing less than the standards herein recommended shall be deemed acceptable in the beginning. The Commission on Accredited Schools

has an opportunity to assist immeasurably in strengthening secondary education in the Northwest, and the committee believes that this will be best accomplished by starting with a comparatively select list of schools.

Furthermore, your committee believes that the Commission should refrain from any action which will lead to standardization of secondary schools and methods of inspection. It is our belief that the cause of secondary education will be best advanced by a somewhat free and natural development in the several states.

Respectfully submitted for the committee,

A. S. WHITNEY,
Chairman.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Held at
Chicago, Illinois, April 3 and 4, 1903

ANN ARBOR
PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
1903

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EDITED BY
JOSEPH VILLIERS DENNEY
SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

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Copies of the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. J. E. Armstrong, Englewood High School, Chicago. The price of single copies is twenty-five cents. The price of the complete set as far as published (nine numbers, including the report of the Preliminary Meeting for Organization) is $1.75.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, April 1 and 2, 1904.

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Eighth Annual Meeting, Chicago, April 3 and 4, 1903.

The eighth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, April 3 and 4, 1903.

FIRST SESSION, FRIDAY, APRIL 3, 1903.

The Association was called to order at 10:30 a. m. in the Banqueting Hall of the Auditorium Hotel by the President, Director George N. Carman, Lewis Institute, Chicago.

President Carman delivered the annual address, as follows:

THE OBJECT AND WORK OF THE ASSOCIATION.

BY DIRECTOR GEORGE N. CARMAN, LEWIS INSTITUTE.

I shall take advantage of the opportunity of making the annual address of the president to review briefly the work of the Association and to consider some questions suggested by what has been done.

Article II of the constitution states that "The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States." Article III provides for such institutional and individual members "as may be nominated by the Executive Committee and elected by the Association," with the provision that "the representation of higher and secondary education be as nearly equal as practicable." At the preliminary meeting for organization it was resolved "That we recommend that the Executive Committee limit the membership of the Association to one hundred and fifty." The membership at present varies but slightly from what it was at the first annual meeting, and is as follows: Representatives of State Universities, 24; Universities other than State and Colleges, 27; Schools of Technology, 7. Total representatives of Colleges and Universities, 58. Representatives of Public High Schools, 40; Private Schools and Academies, 14; Normal Schools, 4. Total representatives of Secondary Schools, 58. Total membership, 116, equally divided between Colleges and Secondary Schools.

At the first annual meeting, held at the University of Chicago in 1896, topics under consideration were, "Systems of Admission to College," and "What Constitutes a College and What a Secondary School." A secondary school was defined by President Jesse as an institution with a four-year course of study devoted chiefly to Latin, Greek, French, German, English, history, algebra, geometry, and science. A college was defined as an institution (1) with requirements for admission equal to a four-year course in a secondary school, (2) with a four-year course of study embracing Latin, Greek, French, German, English, mathematics, history, political economy, philosophy, physics, chemistry, and biology, (3) with at least eight instructors who devote all of their time to college work, (4) with an income such as may be derived from

an undowment of not less than $250,000. In determining what institutions may become members of the Association, the Executive Committee has followed in the main the definitions submitted by President Jesse.

At the second annual meeting, held at the Lewis Institute in 1897, so much interest was taken in the discussion of the "Fourth Resolution" that it was further discussed at the third meeting. You will recall the resolution, which ran as follows: "Resolved, That in every secondary school and in college as far as to the end of the Sophomore year, the study of language and the study of mathematics should be predominantly and continuously pursued; that the study of English, including grammar, rhetoric, and composition, should continue throughout every course; that two languages besides English should be studied, and that no other studies should be allowed to interfere with the pre-eminence of the studies here designated."

At the third annual meeting, Supt. Nightingale's substitute was adopted, which was as follows: "Resolved, That in both secondary schools and colleges, such courses of study should be provided as will offer to every student the best advantages, within reasonable limits, for the highest development of those talents with which he has been endowed, and that to this end studies should be arranged under the following heads, viz.: (1) languages; (2) mathematics; (3) natural and physical science; (4) history and literature; (5) civics and economics; further, that while students should, in general, be encouraged to maintain a reasonable balance between these, the courses should be so plastic as to permit alternative options, with a view to their adaptation to the individual capacities and purposes of students."

At the same meeting an unsuccessful attempt was made to determine upon certain constants for admission to college, and commissions were authorized to formulate

uniform entrance requirements in the various subjects of the secondary school curriculum. These commissions, however, were never appointed. The constitution of the Association was so amended at this meeting as to make "no college or university eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than four years of secondary work" and "no secondary school eligible which does not have a four years' course of study."

The fourth annual meeting was chiefly devoted to a consideration of commercial and technical education. Two committees were appointed, one to report on commercial high schools and commercial courses in high schools and colleges, and the other on technical schools. These committees have thus far failed to report.

At the fifth meeting, held in St. Louis, a committee on College Admission Requirements reported in favor of a four years' curriculum for high schools that should include as constants (1) Two years' work in English, (2) Two years' work in mathematics, (3) One years' work in science, (4) One year's work in history, or six out of sixteen units, the other ten being elective.

The meeting of 1901 is notable for the appointment of the Commission on Accredited Schools, as an outcome of the discussion of the paper of Dean Forbes on "The Desirability of so Federating the North Central Colleges and Universities as to secure Essentially Uniform or at least Equivalent Entrance Requirements."

At last year's meeting in Cleveland the first Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools was presented to the Association and adopted, and Dr. Butler gave his address on "The Peril of the Small College," in which he presented the views on the shortening of the college course to two years, which were afterwards embodied in his first annual report as President of Columbia University.

In the light of the record that has been made, the

Association has certainly worked consistently towards the accomplishment of its object, the establishing of closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools. There may, however, be a difference of opinion as to whether as much has been done as might reasonably have been expected. The work of our Association has been compared with others of a similar character, especially that of the Middle States and Maryland, and attention has been called to the fact that our meetings are smaller although we cover a larger territory. I have already referred to the resolution, which was passed at the meeting for organization, recommending that the membership be limited to one hundred and fifty. I believe that the chief reasons for a relatively small membership are (1) the extent of our territory, (2) the belief that the Association should be a working rather than, or as well as, a talking body, and (3) that, if it is to be a body that is to do work, the membership should be largely constant, rather than shifting from year to year. It is apparent that there are not many representatives of the colleges and schools in states as far apart as Minnesota and Missouri, Colorado and Ohio, who can attend regularly the annual meetings of the Association. If then there is to be constant element, the membership cannot be large, and a larger attendance would mean an unduly large number of those who represent the locality in which the Association chances to hold its meetings.

A comparatively small body, if truly representative of the interests concerned, may act for a large territory and be more efficient than a larger body.

But is there anything to do but to talk? We have been reminded in this Association more than once that we have no authority to act for the states or institutions which we represent, for the state is the only authority in education. That there might be no misunderstanding,

the purely advisory character of our powers was set forth in Article IV of the Constitution.

There are, however, great possibilities in voluntary co-operation. Without going so far as Herbert Spencer, or the late Thomas Davidson, who would give the state no power in matters educational, but leave all to voluntary co-operation, I think most of us realize the advantage of our American system of leaving the control of education to the several states. This makes necessary and possible associations of educators, who represent territory larger than the states and whose actions are not without influence, even if they have not the force of legal enactment.

What has been done in the last decade in the way of voluntary co-operation of secondary schools and colleges is an indication of what may yet be accomplished. The Reports of the Committees of Ten and of Thirteen of the National Educational Association, the establishing of the College Examination Board and the Commission on Accredited Schools are achievements which pave the way for the general acceptance of such definitions and adjustments of courses of instruction in both school and college as will enable the institutions concerned to co-operate to their own advantage as well as to the advantage of their students, for whom state lines have very little significance.

The object of the Association, interpreted in the light of the amendments adopted in 1898 and the Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools adopted last year, is to establish closer relations between two classes of institutions. These two classes are, (1) colleges and universities whose requirements for admission represent not less than four years of secondary school work, and, (2) secondary schools which have a four years' curriculum consisting of fifteen unit courses of study, three of which must be in English and two in mathematics. Only such

institutions as conform to one or the other of these two types are at present eligible to membership in the Association.

We are committed to the elective principle in the secondary school. This is no longer a question for discussion in this Association. We have defined the secondary school as an institution which gives instruction, in advance of the elementary grades, in English and mathematics and such other subjects of study, technical and non-technical, as are suited to the aims and attainments of the students. This definition is a wide departure from that given by President Jesse at the first meeting of the Association.

It was significant that President Butler's recommendation as to shortening the college course was first made in an address before this Association, and that its subject was "The Peril of the Small College." I believe that nowhere is the small college in greater peril than in the North Central States, and the reasons for this peril appear nowhere more clearly than in the acts of this Association which I have briefly reviewed. A high school curriculum in which the only absolute requirements are English and mathematics may prepare its students for a university where there are professional and technical schools with varying requirements for admission, and yet furnish a very unsatisfactory preparation for an old-line college the resources of which necessarily limit it to a somewhat narrow range of subjects, the best preparation for which is a high school curriculum in which Latin, Greek, and mathematics are "predominantly and continuously" pursued. A student who has had a four-year course of study of almost any sort may easily be cared for in a large university, but he may be a puzzling problem to the small college.

This Association is, then, as it now stands, in the main, an association of high schools and universities.

In President Jesse's definitions of the secondary school and the college, the same subjects of study were pursued in both except that political economy and philosophy were added to the college curriculum, so that the work done in college was for the most part a continuation of what had been begun in the high school. The situation is now changed. The university work may be said to be based on, but it is not necessarily a continuation of the high school curriculum. It is possible that a six-year course of study in which the more advanced work is a continuation of what has gone before may, in some cases and for some purposes, be of as much value as an eight-year course, the two parts of which are not so well related.

But we have ruled out of the Association, colleges and technical schools which admit students whose preparation represents less than a four-year high school course. We have as yet, however, taken no action as to the length of the college course. A college which gives the bachelor's degree after three or even two years of residence may be in good standing in the Association, if its requirements for admission are a four-year high school course, whereas a college which gives the bachelor's degree only after four years of residence may not be a member of the Association if its requirements for admission are less than a four-year high school course. An arrangement is now commonly made in the Universities by which not more than two years of non-technical work are required for the bachelor's degree, the remainder of the requirement being technical or professional. As Dr. Butler has pointed out, this amounts to a subterfuge for reducing the length of what we think of as distinctively a college training to two years The universities that in this way practically reduce the college course to two years may be members of the Association, but a college or technical school or large city high school that gives the bachelor's degree after a

six-year course, including the preparatory work, is ruled out.

The Association has determined the content and the constants of the high school curriculum. Are there any constants in what the bachelor's degree stands for? Is it not now in order for the Association to give some attention to the content and constants in the requirements for the bachelor's degree?

The confusion which grew out of the introduction of new subjects of study in the schools and colleges, with the multiplication of school curricula and college degrees, marked the transition from the old rigid requirement of Latin, Greek, and mathematics to the more elastic elective system of the present time. In a single school as many as ten or a dozen curricula were sometimes constructed by somewhat arbitrarily putting together all sorts of studies in the vain effort to meet what were supposed to be the demands of various occupations and the requirements of various colleges, technical schools, and universities, with their many and varying degrees. In this matter of curriculum making no two institutions agreed. Each high school principal and each college faculty acted quite independently, with results with which we are all familiar. But a reaction has now set in, which has already brought about a decided reduction in the number of college degrees, and if order is to come out of chaos, it will be by treating each study by itself, whether pursued in school or college or in both, so that some general agreement may be reached as to the content of particular courses of instruction, just what courses may be offered by any particular institution being determined by its location and resources. This makes a place for all kinds of schools, and provides for the sparsely settled country as well as for the large city. Schools and colleges will differ as to the subjects taught and the number of courses of instruction offered in any subject, but much may be

done, by a general agreement on definitions of particular courses and by inspection, to bring about a system of interchangeable units which may be accepted on their face value as current coin in the territory represented by the Association.

But the end has not yet come in the matter of the introduction of new subjects of study. The first report of the Commission on Accredited Schools has no definitions of courses that are distinctively technical or commercial, but I take it that we are agreed that such instruction should be given in the secondary school as well as in the university. Definitions of courses in technical and commercial subjects based on a study of what is now done in our own country and elsewhere would be of great service to schools that appreciate the need of introducing these studies. Such definitions would go far towards bringing about a rational adjustment of the instruction in commerce and technology, which may be given in the secondary schools with that which is given in the universities and schools of technology.

Manual training in the elementary school, as is true of all elementary education, "aims to secure the necessary level of general intelligence," but, at the high school stage, manual training is, and should be frankly acknowledged to be, of the nature of technical education. I can account for the contention, so often urged by advocates of the manual training high school, that such training need have no special relation to the future vocation of students as due to a mistaken notion that technical education is out of place in the secondary school. My own experience confirms the truth of President Hadley's statement, that "there are some boys with whom it is desirable that the technical education should follow the primary education just as speedily as possible; boys with whom the stimulus of earning a living is the one educational force which can be made effective."

With the acceptation of the principle of election in school and college, and such a system of interchangeable units as seems to be all that may be expected in the way of uniformity, may we continue to use the term secondary school as marking one four-year stage of education, and college as marking the next four-year stage in advance, and assume that an institution must be the one or the other or apologize for its existence, and that its representative must accept membership in the Association, if at all, as an individual and not as an institutional member?

I am not sure that President Hadley is justified in using secondary education in a sense that includes all that is non-technical in advance of what may be termed elementary. I am satisfied, however, that it is important to keep clearly in mind the distinction between education that is technical and that which is not technical, and to recognize the fact that both must be taken into account in the consideration of any complete system of education in advance of the elementary school. I am so much impressed with the value of President Hadley's diagram that I have put a modified form of it before you as a graphic representation of such phases of education as are in advance of the elementary.

An examination of the diagram cannot fail to impress one with the fact that the object of this Association, to establish closer relations between institutions of higher education, should be something different from, and far more comprehensive, than the determination of college entrance requirements.

"Speaking roughly, primary education aims to secure the necessary level of general intelligence; technical education aims to secure the necessary level of professional intelligence; secondary education aims at something in excess of these necessary minima."

This diagram represents the educational field, ele-

mentary and higher, and shows the relation of technical to general education for those whose period of schooling may be anywhere from ten to twenty years.

Twenty years of school life ordinarily means twelve years beyond the elementary school, with periods of four

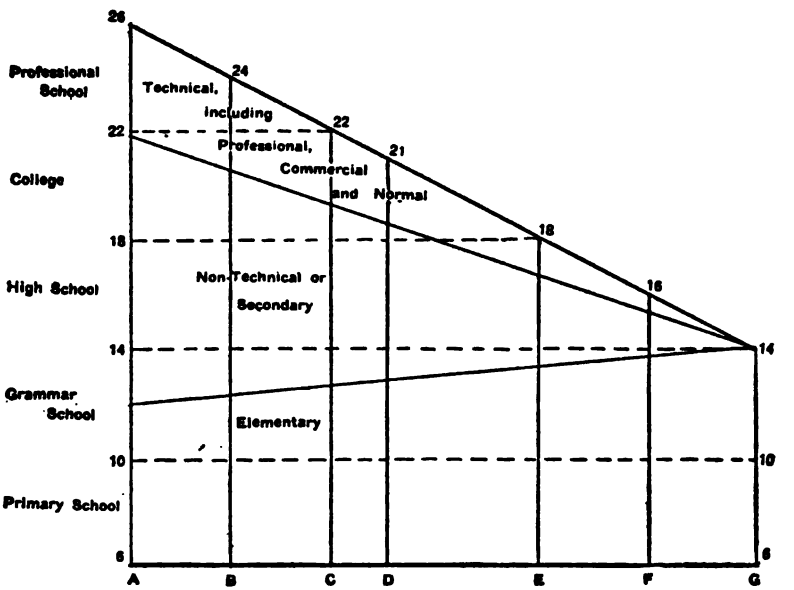

DIAGRAM SUGGESTED BY PRESIDENT HADLEY'S ARTICLE IN SCHOOL REVIEW OF DECEMBER ON "THE MEANING AND PURPOSE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION."

years each in the high school, college, and professional school. Sixteen years of school life is, as a rule, equally divided between the elementary and higher schools, of which the last four years may be either general or technical. There are those who maintain that there should be no opportunities for technical education offered to students who cannot devote eight years to advanced study, and this Association seems to be committed to this

contention. But the land-grant colleges and other technical schools with curricula, combining high school and college work, of less than eight years in length, are recognized by the public as satisfying a most important need.

The problem is not—How can schools of a certain grade in four years fit students for another class of instructions with curricula four years in length, but how can education in advance of the elementary be organized and administered, not only so as to make it possible for one to climb the educational ladder that reaches from the kindergarten to the university, but so that those who have but ten, twelve, or fourteen years to devote to study, as well as those whose opportunities are unlimited, may make the most of their time and talents.

The number in every community who recognize the need of something more than an elementary education is constantly increasing. The enrollment of half a million students in correspondence schools during the past decade may well make us pause, for the interests of all classes should be conserved by any system of education that is designed to be universal.

There are striking variations in the demands that are made by those who have a vague sense of the need of something in advance of the primary school, these variations being due to differences in age, native endowments, and financial resources. But because a boy has not the ability or the means that enable him, by devoting eight or ten years to advanced study to become a professional engineer, it does not follow that he will not profit by a training that may fit him to hold a responsible position in some kind of mechanical industry, or to become a skilled and intelligent workman in what may be called the engineering trades.

The standing and efficiency of an educational institution in a democracy should not be determined alone by those who receive its degrees and highest honors, nor by

the number of students that it can keep out by the barriers it sets up, but by the success with which it fits each one who enters, whether his talents be one or many, for some kind of useful service. This result may be accomplished under an elective system by taking account of such variations in students as have been noted, and by making the proportion of technical and general instruction vary from the beginning of the high school stage according to the varying needs and limitations of individual students.

Having dwelt upon the relation of technical to general education for students whose period of schooling varies from ten to twenty years, I wish to emphasize, as is suggested by the diagram, the unity of the entire educational field, and to suggest the various lines of separation that may be made in dividing the work between different institutions. The lines in the diagram suggest these divisions.

I ask your attention to two only: The triangle, the base of which is the line marked 18, and the apex 26, and the four-sided figure, the base of which is 14, and the top the line marked 22. The two fields overlap, each covering the field of the college which would be represented by the figure with base 18 and top 22. The triangle may represent the work of the university, based on a high school training. Its instruction covers a range of eight years. By such adjustments as have been referred to a student may receive the bachelor's degree in four years and the professional degree in six years. The second figure may represent a type of institution which has a place to fill in the educational field lower, but similar in its comprehensiveness to that of the university. The instruction offered in such an institution would ordinarily cover the seven years, from fourteen to twenty-one. A saving of from one to two years could be effected by a better co-ordination of the work throughout the entire period than is usual where it is done in different institutions with varying and

often conflicting aims. It is quite as legitimate for such an institution to combine the work of the high school and college as it is for the university to combine the work of the college and professional school, and the advantage to students might be the same in both cases.

One year ago there arose a discussion in the Association as to whether a high school with but two or three teachers should in any case be placed on the list of schools approved by the Commission. For the Commission has been authorized not only to make definitions of courses of study, but also to prepare a list of high schools which are entitled to the accredited relationship. In making an approved list, must the number of courses of instruction that a school is prepared to offer be taken into account, as well as the quality of the instruction that is given? And what is to be done with institutions that combine high school and college work? Are schools of this type included in the provision that authorizes the Commission to report methods for the assignment of college credit for high school work done in advance of the college entrance requirements?

Since the organization of the Association eight years ago we have passed from the nineteenth into the twentieth century. In the century that we have left behind the work of the college and the work of the high school were as a whole quite clearly defined and understood, and the object of the Association as set forth in the constitution, interpreted in the light of the past, was to come to an understanding in the matter of college entrance requirements. But the acceptance of the principle of election, the introduction of technical and commercial courses of instruction, in school and college, and the probable reduction of the combined high school and college courses from eight to six years make an appreciable change in the object and work of the Association. If, as I have maintained, a hard and fast line or, if you please, a horizontal

line, can no longer be drawn between the high school and the college, and between general instruction and technical instruction; if there are many courses of instruction that are of such a character that they may be given and, as a matter of fact, are given, both in school and college, may it not be necessary to extend the scope of the Commission on Accredited Schools so as to include colleges? When this is done we are in a position to determine what the bachelor's degree should stand for, so that whether the work is done in one or in several institutions, when done, it will be well done, and it will mean something more definite than it does at present.

The Treasurer of the Association, Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School, Chicago, submitted his report as follows:

RECEIPTS.			
1902 March 28	Received from former Treasurer, .		$195 94
	" " Membership Fees, .	$108 00	
	" " Reports, ...	7 35—	115 35
			$311 29
EXPENDITURES.			
	For Publishing Report, ...	$188 94	
	" Expense of Members, ...	83 72	
	" Reports, ...	1 50	
	" Stationery	8 55—	282 71
	Balance on hand, . . .		$ 28 58

J. E. ARMSTRONG, Treasurer.

The President then appointed the following committees:

1. To recommed the time and place of the next meeting of the Association: Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland; Principal W. J. S. Bryan, of St. Louis, and Professor W. W. Beman, of the University of Michigan.

2. To nominate officers: President George E. Mc-

Lean, University of Iowa; Professor C. A. Waldo, of Purdue University; President C. L. Mees, of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute, Ind.

3. To audit the treasurer's report: Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo; Principal F. L. Bliss, of Detroit University School, and President Edward D. Eaton, of Beloit College.

Professor Henry Carter Adams, of the University of Michigan, then read the following paper:

INFLUENCE OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL EDUCATION UPON THE CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

BY PROFESSOR HENRY CARTER ADAMS, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

I have been asked to say a few words respecting the influence of the movement for higher commercial education upon the curriculum of our secondary schools. The statement of this question seems to imply that the development of this line of instruction in colleges and universities may have, or ought to have, a decided influence upon what is taught in high schools and academies, as also in that very considerable class of special intermediate schools which form so conspicuous a feature of our educational system. The idea seems to be that each school is a step in a systematic scheme of education, and in a sense, that each is a preparation for the grade of school that stands next higher, from which it follows that the universities and colleges are at liberty to shape the schools that lie beneath.

If your programme committee desired a consideration of the topic along the lines of these assumptions, it is unfortunate that I should have been asked to introduce

the discussion. I can not see that universities are called upon by virtue of their position in the educational world, except so far, of course, as the members of the faculties may be interested in the educational problem as a whole, to give much advice to the secondary schools with regard either to commercial education or any other branch of instruction which their experience shows them to be adjusted to the needs of their constituents. There is some reason for believing that the contrary view indicates the narrow purpose of the programme-maker rather than the broad sympathy of the educator. Some one has likened the educational system to a pyramid of which the primary and common schools are the base, while the secondary and intermediate schools lie half way up its sloping sides and the universities form the capping stone over all. A simile is doubtless good or bad according to the use to which it is put, but this one seems especially unfortunate as a starting point for constructive analysis. It may be an appropriate picture for an educational system adjusted to an Egyptian civilization, that is to say to a civilization whose social and political institutions rest on slavery, but it certainly suggests erroneous ideas if applied to the educational organization of a free and democratic people. Only in a formal sense do the common schools lie at the basis of our educational system. They do not find their guiding principle in the fact that they give support to education of the more advanced type. The same is true of intermediate or secondary schools. Their defence lies in the fact that they serve a useful purpose in and of themselves, because they minister to the needs of a particular class of people. The relation which they bear to the common schools below them, or to the universities above them, is an administrative rather than a vital relation. Nor, again, do the universities find their justification in the fact that they complete the symmetry of an educational programme; they are not the capping stone

of a pyramid which lifts its head on high for no other purpose than to break the monotonous sky line of an arid civilization. Every true university man must protest against a conception of higher institutions of learning which seems to separate them from the dirt, the sweat, the aspirations of the common people.

It would be a mistake to conclude, however, that the question submitted fails to suggest a topic for fruitful discussion. No task presents greater difficulties than that of readjusting studies to meet newly developed social or industrial conditions. The reason why industrial or business education claims so large a share of attention at the present time is that the latest phase of social needs for intellectual training lies along the path of industrial or business activities. Not only has industry assumed a new form and created for itself unusual agreements and strange contracts, but a new, or at least a more vital relation has sprung up between industrial classes, as also between industry as a trade or occupation and industry as an agency for public welfare. It is this broader view of work-a-day activities that supplies the ideal of educational readjustment, so far as readjustment is necessary, and what I have to say will bear upon the industrial needs to which our educational system must respond rather than upon the technical requirements which a school of one grade may necessarily make upon the schools of inferior grades in order that students may easily pass from one to the other.

It seems, then, that the various forms and grades of schools in our educational system find their justification, as also the controlling principle of their organization and administration in the fact that each ministers to a clearly defined class need. In making use of the phrase "industrial classes" it is not designed to lend countenance to an undemocratic view of society. The industrial classes held in mind are not such as rest on privilege or birth, except

as these accidents of life determine for individuals the choice of occupation or profession. Classes, in an industrial democracy are the result of the application of the principle of the division of labor. They are the expressions of social specialization and industrial organization, and as such are to be accepted as a permanent part of the existing order. Individuals may move from class to class, but classes remain; and the purpose of education on its general as well as its technical side, should be to prepare these classes for performing in a satisfactory manner the peculiar tasks imposed upon them. As compared with this, which must be regarded as a fundamental problem in education, the Chinese puzzle of school integration loses much of its interest.

It may be urged that there is nothing novel in this point of view; and as far as language is concerned, this is doubtless the case; but the phrasing of an idea and its fruitful application are not quite the same thing. I had recently the pleasure of listening to an admirable paper upon "Secondary Schools of Commerce and Their Relation to Higher Institutions" by Professor Cheesman A. Herrick, of the Philadelphia High School. The ideas presented in the introductory portion of this paper were in entire harmony with those to which you have just listened. Professor Herrick deprecated, on the one hand, that high schools should be regarded as an "extension downward of classical college courses" and, on the other hand, that they should be an "extension upward of the elementary school courses." "Secondary education," he says, "should have less regard for the small minority that enters upon higher education and consider much more the rights of the large majority that does not." This, you observe, assumes that high schools will succeed in so far as they respond to the definite needs of a particular class, a conclusion which finds ample proof in the fact, also presented by Professor Herrick, that "the constituency

of the Philadelphia school is largely of the middle class, small trades people, clerks, skilled laborers, public employes, and the like."

With all this I heartily agree, but I cannot entirely sympathize with the solution offered by Professor Herrick for integrating the high schools and the universities. For it seems to me that while he asserts a class service for intermediate schools, he denies it to the universities. "The rational thing," he asserts, "is to open more doorways between the school and college." Again, "The boy fitted for getting into life ought not to be thereby incapacitated for getting into college." In another place he says, "Let the universities widen their system of credits or entrance requirements and touch the schools at more points and the question will settle itself." Doubtless this might settle the question, but it is greatly to be feared that it would settle the universities at the same time. The university is something more than an extension upward of intermediate and high school instruction. It, like the high schools, has a task and a definite constituency of its own and it cannot be trammeled in its development by methods of instruction which fit the needs of intermediate schools. Especially is this true of commercial education, with which our universities are now experimenting. The demand for this phase of instruction is found in the fact that industrial expansion has made clear the necessity of the financier, the entrepreneur, the organizer, the administrator, and the technical expert. When markets were local, when the corporation was an exceptional form of organization, when labor contracts were personal rather than collective, when the margin of profits was broad and the analysis of costs simple there was little need for higher commercial education. A knowledge of the trades, or simple methods of accounts were adequate. It is because the industrial world has taken upon itself a new form that the development of a new kind of education has become

a necessity, and it seems to me that the universities will make safer progress by holding before themselves their own peculiar task when considering the kind of instruction preparatory to a business career, than by paying very much regard to the kind of work done in intermediate schools. The bond of union between the various grades of schools that make up our educational system should be found in those branches of instruction that hold in mind a general education, and we should not forget in speaking of technical or commercial instruction, that from 50 to 60 per cent of the time of students is given to literary and scientific branches. This is true, at least in commercial courses, as they are at present organized in our universities and, I repeat, that the bond of union should be sought, in language, history, mathematics or science. There is already established in these studies a natural progression from the lower to the higher education; but the adjustment of technical instruction, especialy technical instruction that has to do with industrial callings, should be complete in itself for each grade or class, and adjusted to the peculiar needs of the several classes into which industrial society is at present organized.

Another illustration of the failure of educators to appreciate that the significant thing in the discussion of the problem under consideration lies in the point of view from which it is approached suggests itself. Something over a year ago a teacher in one of the high schools of a neighboring city inquired what the University of Michigan was doing in its courses in higher commercial education. He came, he said, as the representative of the superintendent, to gather material for a report to the Board of Education relative to business training. I endeavored to make plain that the problem of business training for high schools in a commercial city was different from that of a university, but this suggestion was received with manifest impatience. What he wished to

know was the class of subjects treated in the University, and when I inquired if he expected to provide for instruction in all of these subjects in the high school his reply was, "Of course we cannot go into these subjects as deeply as you do in the University, but we wish to have our curriculum as broad as that which you provide in the University." His idea seemed to be to prepare students for advanced standing in the university, that is to say, instead of making the university come to the schools, as suggested by Professor Herrick, he desired to have the schools adjust their instruction to the university.

Since interesting myself in higher commercial education many inquiries have been received from businss colleges relative to the standing which their students might obtain in the University. It is a great temption, especially in view of the desire which we all have to secure a large number of students, to answer such inquiries in a sympathetic manner, but to do so would be to disregard two fundamental principles of educational organization. First, that progress from lower schools to higher schools must rest upon general rather than technical educational attainments, and second, that technical education is essentially class education.

To make yet clearer the point of view for which this paper contends, let us inquire merely by way of illustration, what bearing it has upon the place of commercial geography in commercial education. I do not refer to those commercial geographies written by geologists and geographers, for they are useless from any point of view. No one but a trained economist can write or teach commercial geography. But, assuming that we have the proper preparation in the teacher and the author, just what class of pupils need the instruction offered? There are of course many secondary considerations for the study of commercial geography, but the fundamental reason for the appearance of this branch of instruction in all

higher commercial education is found in the fact that the function of buying material and selling product has come to be a vital function in modern industrial activities. Were the world not an open field for the manufacturer in the purchase of his material or for the salesman in the disposal of his product, there would be no practical advantage in the study of commercial geography; but for men who administer great industries in a world's market, it comes to be one of the essential and fundamental studies. Of what use, then, is it to teach commercial geography in a school which designs to prepare men for middle class industrial occupations? It should, in my opinion, be reserved for the universities. It is a phase of knowledge which can be made use of only by the administrators of great industries, and when one duly appreciates the difficulty of marshalling the great mass of details which commercial geography presents in a scientific manner, it is evident that no beneficial results can come from including this study in the curriculum of high schools. The students have neither the time for its mastery nor have the instructors time for adequate specialization to present it in a proper manner. Commercial geography answers a class need for the organization and administration of great industries and it is a fitting study only for those who are ambitious to occupy such positions.

It would be interesting to apply the same considerations to all the courses of instruction which now make up the curriculum in the graded schools, in the high schools and in the universities, so far as they pertain to industrial activities, but enough has been said to make clear the point of view and that, perhaps, is all that can be undertaken at this time. Before leaving the subject, however, I desire to revert once more to the use I have made of the phrase "industrial classes" and to the bearing which their recognition has upon the general subject of

education. The productive principle in modern industry is organization, and organization implies harmonious co-operation of clearly defined industrial activities. At present we seem to have the organization, but not the harmonious co-operation. The interdependence of class on class is universally acknowledged and with each step in the further application of division of labor, this interdependence becomes greater and the necessity of harmonious co-operation more imperative. An analysis of the situation shows that the success of each individual or class is increasingly dependent upon general prosperity, and that the failure of any class to perform its assumed functions is the occasion of embarrassment to all and may, if carried too far, result in the downfall of our magnificent national civilization.

It thus becomes a vital question under what conditions harmonious co-operation may be secured and what part education has in bringing about this result, and I answer, harmonious co-operation can only be secured when each industrial class recognizes its peculiar relation to the industrial organization of which it is a part. The willing, intelligent subordination of the rank and file of the industrial army is as essential as the intelligent, energetic direction of a captain of industry. The final test of industrial education is found in its ability to make clear the interdependence of industrial classes and to disseminate correct ideas relative to the solidarity of the established industrial order, without which there can be no hope of industrial peace.

All this, of course, pertains primarily to the spirit in which instruction is given. The chief difficulty in bringing education to bear, lies in the fact that the great majority of workmen leave school before they have attained sufficient maturity to appreciate an analysis of industrial relations. We cannot teach political economy, industrial history or business structure in the primary grades. It

is, however, possible to make every subject taught an illustration of the essential unity that exists in society. Especially is this possible in connection with manual training which aims to instruct the student in the art of self-subordination and to bring the eye, the nerves and the muscles under the control of the will. It is not necessary that a single word be said relative to the industrial order in the primary and graded schools, for if the child be taught to appreciate the sense of interdependence betwen those things with which he is called upon to deal in childhood, he will bring the same attitude of mind to bear upon those conditions in which he finds himself in manhood. There are, then, two aims which manual training should set before itself. First, the development of mobility which comes with the possession of dexterity and with acquaintance with mechanical principles, and second, the development of the sense of unity in all things, and the constant illustration of the fact that every occupation, however humble in itself, carries with it a dignity of its own, because it is essential to the success of the social order.

For students who come into the intermediate schools the problem is a little different. They have attained sufficient maturity of mind to indulge, to some extent, in analysis and generalization. History properly presented is perhaps the surest means of fostering the idea of continuity in human events and of solidarity in human interests. The phase of history which should claim the attention of schools must be determined by the particular social problems which for the time being, claim attention. At present all of our great problems, whether political, social or ethical, find their root in industrial relations, from which it follows that at the present time especial emphasis must be laid upon social and industrial history. To make my point entirely clear, I may perhaps be permitted to say that political economy as a science has no

place in the high schools; but for this there should be substituted an history of industrial society and a description of the industrial structure. The aim should be to explain to the student at what point in the evolution of industry the accepted principles of rights and of duties, of property and of obligations, made their appearance, and to give him an insight into the fact that the principle of division of labor is entirely responsible for the existing condition of industrial interdependence. Unfortunately, no writer of industrial history has yet held in view this pedagogical purpose. And what is perhaps more unfortunate still, the teaching of this subject is frequently placed in the hands of those who have had no training in the higher branches of economics. In the University of Michigan, if I may be pardoned for referring to the institution of which I am a member, industrial history is regarded as a preparation for the study of political economy, but we look forward to the time when this work can be done by the high schools, thus enabling the university student to come at once to the study of economics. It is along these lines that the high schools and the universities find the true principle of integration.

What, now, can be said for the universities; what is their part in the crystallization of this sense of solidarity? This raises the question of an appropriate curriculum for the training of business men who are to become industrial administrators and financiers. It is, of course, impossible at this time to enter upon so comprehensive an analysis and I shall content myself with a few suggestions. The final purpose of this instruction should be to give the student insight into the industrial order. Law should be taught primarily with the aim of familiarizing the student with the legal principles to which business conduct must conform. Science should be taught just so far as is necessary to enable students to appreciate the dependence of industrial progress upon scientific investigation

and research. History should emphasize the essential relation between the three great institutions represented by political, religious, and industrial activity. Instruction in commerce should be regarded as a perpetual illustration of the fact that enduring trade must be of benefit to both parties. Private and corporate finance should be presented as the counterpart of public finance, for this is the surest means of making clear the fact that power is not dangerous when properly balanced. And finally, political economy, which I venture to define as the science of industrial society, must be regarded as the center from which and the end to which all commercial instruction tends. In short, apart from the technical advantage to business men of the courses of instruction which make up the curriculum of higher commercial education, stands the great social purpose of this department of education, which is to give the managers of industry so keen an insight into industrial conditions that they may be led to understand how social advancement is related to private gain. We thus come back to the position of the old classical economists that the object of education should be an enlightened self-interest, although under these new conditions a new meaning attaches itself to the phrase.

The discussion of Professor Adams' paper was opened by Principal E. V. Robinson, of Central High School, St. Paul, Minn., and Dr. Henry R. Hatfield, Dean of the College of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago.

PRINCIPAL E. V. ROBINSON, of the Central High School, St. Paul:

Not having had the opportunity of reading the very able paper to which we have just listened, I am forced to rely upon somewhat desultory remarks upon this occasion.

The time has passed when the secondary schools, or at least the larger schools in the city, are very immediately or permanently affected by any change that the universities may make in their curriculum. The high schools in the two cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, for example, which are very close to the universities, are caring for five or six times as many students as the universities. There are several schools in those cities, each one of which outnumbers the University of Minnesota, not counting the technical schools. There are two which outnumber the University even including technical schools. In these schools about one-third who enter, graduate, and about one-third of those who graduate, enter college. In other words, about one in ten goes on with higher education. It is out of the question that these communities should tax themselves as they do—very heavily—for the purpose of fitting one-tenth of the high school students to go to college.

It is true in a city high school, especially in one near a university, that we do have to meet the requirements of that university. We have a very amiable gentleman at the head of the Mathematics department who has a dogma that the first part of college algebra should be taught in the high school. Well, we secondary men think that is a dead waste of time, but a large number of our students are going there, so we have a course in higher algebra, and we tell people that are going to that university that they will certainly get plucked if they don't take that course. And they take it. We do the same thing in other respects where the requirements are peculiar in any way. But that does not affect my main point, that the high schools have come to have a meaning of their own.

Yet in spite of this fact that the high schools have come to have a meaning of their own and that the community supports them because they have such a meaning, there is an intimate relation of candid reaction between

the secondary schools and the university. For one thing, a great number of sentimentalists think that the odor of sanctity does not attach to a subject until it is offered in a university, and they fought very shy of any sort of industrial or commercial education until it was offered in a university; but as soon as it was offered there they thought it was in the play and they could afford to recognize it. Then again there is the fraternizing effect in the fact that the leading spirits in the secondary schools come from the universities.

But it seems to me that to really get at the bottom of this we shall have to consider what education is for. And I am reminded here of that story which Herodotus tells about the education of the ancient Persians. They learned, he says, three things: to ride a horse, to draw the bow and to tell the truth. Now for them and for that age was a most admirable education. We know that the mediaeval knights learned to stand the shock of the lance charge without going off their horses: that was essential to a man who was going to hold his own as a man in the world. When the high schools were started they were started in imitation of the preparatory schools. In those days the colleges were for fitting scholars for the learned professions—for the ministry preeminently; later for the law, and still later for medicine. What we call to-day "general education" was not known in the high schools; it was simply technical education, designed to prepare men to enter the learned professions. The colleges of fifty or sixty or seventy years ago offered substantially the same work as our high schools do to-day. They offered very little more. And then to prepare for their own work their friends established "grammar schools," as they were called in the olden days; and in imitation of these the public high schools were set up, so that the children of common people should also secure this "higher education"—higher in the sense that it was

technical education in the learned professions. It was just such a curriculum as was proposed when this organization was established. It seems to me an entire perversion of history and fact to call that nonsense a "general" or a "liberal" education. It seems to me an absolute technical education, as much so as any kind of technical education you can find in a technical school of to-day. For a long time the thing went on; the high school stood there and offered people things which had as much bearing upon what they were going to do when they got through school as lunar politics has upon the election in Chicago.

The first break in this old monotonous kind of education came from the high schools themselves, or rather from the good sense of the community. Communities and school boards forced the changes upon the high schools, and later the high schools made the universities believe that it was expedient for them to change their requirements.

Now this commercial education was given in the high school before any university that I know of recognized it at all or gave it any thought. The fact that it is being taken up by the universities seems to me a most auspicious sign of progress, auspicious because it shows that the universities are, even though in a remote degree, in touch with the demands and the needs of the time. We had the day in high schools when there were many courses and the smaller the school the more courses the people thought it was necessary to have. High schools of less than one hundred pupils had twelve or thirteen or fourteen courses, and I remember one institution which had eighty pupils and fifteen courses of study. Then from that we got over to the other extreme. We said "Let them take anything," and as children are not naturally more laborious than they have to be, they went through their four years and came out with a mixture of education that

had no particular bearing upon anything. Now we are coming away from that and in a measure getting to the group idea; education comprising more or less work in all the groups, and in addition to that all of some one group.

I do not know any place where there is more waste of time than in our educational system. We have to teach solid geometry because a large part of the universities require it for admission. But some of them do not; one of the most prominent universities does not. One of our honor students, who was extremely able in mathematics, went to this university. He had to put in a semester going over solid geometry, and he wrote back to his teacher, "Why, this is the greatest snap that I ever struck. I recite about once a month. When I went to high school I had to recite every day; and they will accept demonstrations there that would have given a fellow a zero in high school." That is only one instance. Fellows go into universities and have to fool away a good share of the first year taking over work that they had to take in the high school. That is a criminal waste of time. The schools and universities ought to get together and avoid it.

Again I believe there is a good deal of waste of time below the high school. We have got a fifth wheel to our educational coach. Instead of having three steps in education as they have in Europe—the primary, the secondary (the 'gymnasium') and then the university or the professional school—we have our primary, our secondary, our college and then our professional school; we have four steps; we waste two or three years of the student's life in preparing him to enter upon his life work. Before a man can be independent and able to take care of himself or others he is thirty years of age. That is good for neither men nor women. It is not a condition of things which can continue.

I have no panacea for all this, but I do believe that some solution must be found. Some kind of system can be devised whereby a definition of units can be made and so much of this or the other should authorize the bachelor's degree no matter whether that work is done in college or the university. Then we shall be on a basis where we can give people the kind of education that we should give in order to prepare them for professional courses.

If we do not do that, I believe this is going to come, and I don't know but it is coming anyway: the extending of the high school course two years, or at least the dropping of the bachelor's degree entirely. As far as I know, in Germany they do not give the Bachelor of Arts degree. The student who has gone through the gymnasium has received the same education that he has here at the close of two years in college. And I thoroughly believe that just as fifteen or twenty years ago the high school which had a four-year course was the exception, so in fifteen or twenty years from this time the high school which has less than a six-year course will be the exception and the small college will have to get in line as a secondary school, and the lower part of university work will be done in the high school. I say I believe that will be done unless some work of dovetailing can be devised; some way of defining the units and specifying the units which will be required in order to obtain the bachelor's degree.

DEAN HENRY R. HATFIELD, of the University of Chicago:

I think that there are some points in which we all agree with Professor Adams and there are some in which I think it is perfectly justifiable to disagree to some extent.

We all agree upon the necessity of this commercial education; that it is clearly a technical, professional edu-

cation, and one which we need in our present day for fitting the coming business man for the position which he must fill. Now the older education that we have heard about was of course a technical education: learning how to draw the bow and ride the horse was a technical education for the people of Persia. And I think we have felt that a good deal of our modern college education has not had enough of the technical in it. It is perhaps given to us, not to ride the horse, as the Persians did, but to ride another form of horse and to draw the long bow and perhaps not speak the truth in connection with it. We want to get some form of technical education. Now the question which I understood was to be discussed to-day was, how are we going to provide for that technical education and in what respect should the secondary education be modified in order to lead to good higher development of the technical education? It is true that the main function of the high school—at least if we regard the number of students—is to fit men for what we may call humbler positions in the industrial world and not to train them for the higher technical education. But there is still the fact remaining that we must train a certain limited number of people for these responsible positions. Is it possible to get all that education in the college course without some modification of the secondary education as we find it?

In almost all other lines of technical education we have a course which extends in some cases for eight years after leaving the secondary school; in others seven, and now we are coming more generally to a basis of six years. We feel the necessity of condensing, and have condensed the education in other lines to six years. In the colleges of commerce in this country and in Belgium and Germany the attempt is made to reduce this technical education and college education in most cases to the period of four years. There are some colleges in this

country—one or two perhaps—which add a fifth year. Is it possible then to combine the college course and this technical education in a period of four, or at most, five years after leaving the high school? That certainly is the problem which faces us, and I do not think that it is very easy for us to say, If that period is too short, extend the period; make it six or seven years for commercial education after the time when one leaves the high school —because the pressure of going into active business is so strong that the establishment of a seven or even a six-year course of commercial training after leaving the high school is, I think, almost out of the question.

We can absolutely restrict the college education and this technical education to a period of five years, and in most cases to four years. If we are going to do that, is it not absolutely necessary to crowd as much as can be done well into the secondary schools? I think we admit, most of us, that a good deal of our earlier high school education has been a professional training, looking to the training of teachers. Now if it is true to any extent that the high schools are still fitting for the profession of teaching, certainly that part of professional training now found in the high schools should be displaced by something which will tend more toward the profession of business. I do not say that all the high school courses should be made to conform to this plan; of course they should not: but just as we have been told that even in Minneapolis and St. Paul there were courses added at the behest of those who wished to take geometry, so I think there must be courses prepared for the fitting of those who plan to take professional work in the businesses of the country.

Just what courses should be taken, I do not know. I should make bold to disagree with Professor Adams, to question whether the commercial geography cannot be taught in the later years of the high school. I should

agree that it is not a desirable course to force upon everyone who is taking the high school course; but for those who are taking the high school course with a commercial bent, and for those who are taking the high school course with the purpose of supplementing it with the later commercial education, it would seem that commercial geography is eminently fitting for the later years of high school.

The subject of bookkeeping is, I think, one that we ought to separate clearly from accounting, or "higher accounting." If there is such a separation to be made, I think that a previous knowledge of this humbler art of bookkeeping would possibly be a very great advantage to one who is to enter college. We cannot find the time in the four years of college to give accounting and bookkeeping, and yet the majority of persons who come to college know nothing of the simpler elements of bookkeeping, and if it is desirable at all to teach these subjects, I think they should be carried back into the secondary schools.

In the question of modern languages, the colleges of commerce generally at the present time are admitting Spanish in the place of French. It is along the line of developing trade with the Spanish-speaking peoples, and there is no reason why Spanish should be discriminated against in modern languages. If that is so, I think Spanish should find its place in the curricula of modern high schools.

And then of course something will have to be removed from the high school if anything is to be put in. What that is to be, I will not hint at. Mr. Robinson said that there may be a change in this: that it is practically useless to ask the high school to provide for the training of the few people who will come to this higher commercial course; that the expense is too great to ask the taxpayers to provide for that. Perhaps from the point of

view of the tax-payer that is true. But certainly if we accept the view of the extreme importance of our industrial life and of the absolute necessity for well-trained, competent, broad-minded men to control industrial activity, it does not seem to me that the expense of providing for their education is something to place any great importance upon. To be sure, only a few will take that higher course, but those will take it and continue in it who are best fitted for important positions, and if that is so, those who drop out are not to be considered particularly. The expense, it seems to me, is nothing to be compared with the advantages to be attained by securing a body of people adequately fitted for the administration of the great businesses of the country.

PRINCIPAL ROBINSON:

I judge from the last speaker's remarks that I did not make myself plain regarding the question of expense. I did not mean that the expense of providing for this preliminary work in the high schools is not met. On the contrary I think it generally has been met. At least, in the section from which I come the high schools do generally give that kind of training and have done so for a number of years, and I think that is the kind of training that the public are perhaps more willing to pay for than for any other kind. I think that the tendency is quite in the other direction—that the boards and the public may tend to overemphasize that part of the high school curriculum.

PROFESSOR C. A. WALDO, of Purdue University:

While somebody is getting ready to speak upon this subject I would like to ask a question of Professor Hatfield which occurred to me incidentally and seems to me important in its relation to the subject. It is said that

a man started in his youth with the ambition of becoming worth fourteen million dollars. Somewhere along about fifty years of age he found he had the fourteen, but the cyphers bothered him. Now it has occurred to me that there might be something of that in this question. Professor Hatfield says that it is the purpose of the course to train men for the supreme positions in the commercial world. The question is whether in his experience he can make the necessary connection—after training his men can he land them in the supreme positions?

DEAN C. M. WOODWARD, of Washington University, St. Louis:

I want to set the example of making a short speech. Two things occur to me. I am very much pleased with one statement of Professor Adams: that those in charge of higher education recognize the value of a general preparation and not the value of a special preparation. In other words, the requirements for entering upon college or university work should be general fitness and not familiarity with a particular subject; general strength to undertake new work in a new field.

Then I wish to say another thing, and that is in regard to the demoralizing effect, the belittling effect, of giving university subjects in secondary schools. Again and again I have had students come to me and say, "I have had that," and they look down upon it, when really they have not had it at all, and they have been misled and misinformed and they get a wrong conception of the work done in the secondary schools. I remember one young man especially, who made a complete failure because he had to study things that he thought he had had in the high school. That is the great danger of forcing things down into the high school. Thereby you belittle the subjects and unsettle the students in the higher work.

DIRECTOR E. O. SISSON, of Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill.:

Representing a secondary school, I want to differ a little from Professor Adams' paper on one or two points he has especially emphasized.

I agree with the general principle that admission to college should be based on general fitness and not on technical fitness and that the best course is a general course but it does not follow from that that certain studies should be excluded from the preparatory work. It does not follow, for example, that commercial geography or economics—two things that he mentioned—should not be taught in the high school. Now in the school of which I have charge, both of those subjects are used. They are not used as preparatory for college, because they are not recognized by any of the colleges that I know of and no credit will be given for them in preparation. But they are used for the very simple reason that we have always in the high school a great class of students that find nothing attractive to them in the usual preparatory studies. They have no special taste for mathematics, largely due to the condition under which they have grown up, or for the classics or other languages, and they drift into what is called in Peoria high schools the "commercial course." We are trying to enrich that course and to strengthen it, or rather trying to enrich the line of study along those branches that shall be somewhat equivalent to the studies of the older kind, that are usually preparatory studies. We have been experimenting, because we have had to. We have been experimenting with commercial geography and economics, and we are experimenting with industrial history and along a number of lines where we have not the knowledge that we will have after our experiments are through.

But we have found one thing: that for the class of students we are dealing with, commercial geography and

economics are two of the very best things we have got hold of. They accomplish something for the students not in a technical line but in a general educational way that we cannot accomplish for that class of students in our ordinary studies. Both of those studies have a real educational value entirely aside from their technical value. They are not beyond the comprehension of our people. We are not obliged to do any more proficient work with them than in history or any of the ordinary studies. In fact the course in economics, the harder of the two, is not so difficult as one of the courses we offer in English history or as the course in American history. And those studies give us educational results—results in the line of training and in the development of the ability to think and to use their faculties—that are pretty nearly equal to most of the other subjects in the high school. If that is so, using the principle that Professor Adams mentioned, that we want general training for admission to college, I do not see why those subjects cannot be recognized just as well as mathematics or just as well as history.

PRESIDENT W. H. BLACK, of Missouri Valley College:

With reference to the subject that is before us, I should like to confess in the first place the obligation that I feel for the paper that was so admirably prepared and so strongly put by Professor Adams and for the discussion that has followed; but I wish also to call attention to two or three points that I think we are in danger of overlooking when we are discussing the subject of commercial education, more almost than in any other phase of our educational work.

And the first is this: that the school is an educator of communities as well as an educator of individuals. And the mere response on the part of the school to a public sentiment is not the discharge of a school's whole duty.

Sometimes public sentiment is not the best thing to be guided by, just as sometimes the individual preference of the pupil is not the best thing to be guided by. The position of a teacher in his relation to his student is not simply to respond to the individual preferences and elections of the student, but to be a teacher in the broadest sense: to open up wider fields of vision and strengthen the weaker places in the pupil's nature that he may be able to make choices a little later, better than he is able to make them when he first comes under the teacher's influence. It is of primary importance that the school in the community shall be the educator of the community itself. And while boards of directors may have very close sympathies with the public and may voice a superficial sentiment of the community, it is the teachers' business to think for the community and the school's business to provide for the community deeper and wider things. Otherwise our progress will be of a narrow and a superficial sort. That is the first thing I desire to call attention to in connection with this matter.

The second is this: That we are in danger, as leaders in education, of overlooking the fact that life is a good deal bigger than simply commercial life or professional life; that life is vaster than the field in which we get our livings. The industrial demand at the present time, as indicated by labor movements, is that the time of one life shall be divided up into thirds and the labor motto is, "Eight hours for work, eight hours for sleep, eight hours for what you will." If our education does what it ought to do for the community and for the individual who comes within the radius of our influence in our schools, we must provide not only for those eight hours of labor but for those eight hours of what he will. The problem in this city and in every city of this country is not so much the problem of how a man will work and how he will spend his time while he works and how efficiently he

will work, but how he spends that leisure time. It is the man's leisure that should give us pause. That is the time when the lower influences in life are brought to bear upon him and breaks him down. And the impairment of labor and the impairment of professional skill and the impairment of statesmanship and of everything is determined more by eight hours of rest than by eight hours of toil. If our education does not consider the needs of that particular period of one's life it is missing one of its imperative opportunities and duties. It is an opportunity, because we can, if we pursue right methods, furnish for a man such stimuli to higher things and to self-control as will enable him to resist the temptations that come in that particular period. It is a duty, because, seeing the field —the wide field—of life in all of its phases, we may address ourselves to that particular problem as well as to the problem concerning labor.

It is important that one's hands and his brain should be trained that he may be a good servant in whatsoever field of industry he labors; but it is highly important to the community that he be a good citizen—a good man. It is highly important to the community that in his relations with his neighbors—not while he is at work in the shop or while he is on professional visits or while he is engaged in his studies—he be reserved and self-controlled, and that he know how to live in good neighborship and to foster the higher interests of his community and think well for the welfare of the mass about him.

Therefore, I think it is a very serious matter that we are confronting this morning, because it looks toward specialization at a time when there is not preparation for it, when there has not been sufficient breadth and sympathy, sufficient universality, introduced into one's life to enable him to make the highest and best choices for himself and for the community in which he is to live. And it is also a very important matter, looking at

the higher schools—the universities and the colleges—that they, so far as their influence goes, should also try to affect communities. Now it is one thing for a high school to be very independent, or an academy to assert itself in its own realm and profess indifference to what is in the college or the university; it is another thing for the college and the university to recognize that it has an obligation that is vastly wider than its relation to the students who are on its roll.

As you rise in the institutional life connected with our educational work you rise to wider fields that are within the radius of the influence of these institutions; and if a college's influence reaches out over a state and a university's influence reaches out over several states, their influence upon those wider communities should be in the direction of stimulating the broader life and the finer life, and of a better preparation for life.

Instead of giving so much of our time in the industrial stages of educational work, to technical training and commercial training, we should be giving the bulk of our time and attention to the preparation of these boys and girls to be men and women first of all. Whenever you put a temptation before a pupil to try to specialize in a commercial course you are putting on him a temptation to close his life; and therefore the work that the higher institution should do for him, in many cases cannot be done.

PROFESSOR T. F. HOLGATE, of Northwestern University:

I have not regarded the introduction of commercial courses in the high school curriculum so much with the view to specializing at that period, for I think that is perhaps detrimental; too early specializing is not good. I doubt if any boy of fifteen has a very clear conception of what he either is going to do or wants to do in life. But I think that the introduction of commercial courses

into the high school curriculum with a view to giving breadth to that high school curriculum, and to giving some opportunity for the boy of fifteen who has no great aptitude for Latin, Greek, French or German and has no special taste for mathematics to find something that will induce him to continue his period of education for a year or two longer—I think that is one of the serious problems of the high school to-day. If the introduction of these courses will hold the boy to finish the four years' course in the high school, then by all means introduce those courses in a proper form. I think there is very great danger in the introduction of new courses that they will be slipshod and easy, and reach no definite result. It is not so important in what specialties we train the boy as that we train him—that he gets something that will give him distinct and definite training. There is a very great danger that the specialty will be slipped over and the boy will think that he has covered the field, and when he comes to the same subject in later life he will slight it and have a distaste for it. That is the fault of the method and not the fault of the thing itself. If the subject can be properly taught, it ought to induce the boy to go further with the subject later in life.

Now as to the relation of this whole matter to admission to colleges: if the colleges will only be content to take the boy who is trained, and not ask too many questions as to the subjects in which he has received training, the problem is solved. It is perhaps essential for the college work, unless they are going to repeat from the elements the work of the high school, it is essential that the boy should have a certain amount of training in one, two, three or four different subjects up to a certain minimum amount; then if the college will accept credit in any subject that is well done,—manual training, commercial geography, political economy—anything that rep-

resents a sufficient amount of training, I think the problem of the high school is clearly solved.

SUPERINTENDENT A. F. NIGHTINGALE, of Chicago:

I think that we are inclined to overrate the value of any education, whether general or technical, so far as it relates to a man's financial or business success in life. I am thoroughly in accord with the thought that our secondary schools should aim toward general culture, but I still believe in the old saying that what is one man's meat is another man's poison, and that some subjects will give culture to one boy that will not give culture to another boy. I do not believe that any amount of the study of Latin, Greek and mathematics will necessarily in themselves prepare a man to become President of Harvard University. Nor do I believe that any amount of study in a higher commercial education in the universities will necessarily prepare a man to become the Rockefeller to found a Chicago University. I believe that success in life depends upon what is innate in the man, much more largely than his success in life depends upon his education. I believe that education primarily is more for self-respect and contentment in life than it is for financial success.

Dr. Hatfield need have no fear that, so far as our large cities are concerned, any subject will have to be taken out in our secondary schools in order to make room for some of the elementary studies that are pursued in a higher degree in the universities. The secondary schools in our large cities can add ten or fifteen or twenty more subjects, so far as their programmes are concerned. They can have a subject for every individual pupil, and the public will furnish the teachers for these subjects. It seems to me therefore that as it is necessary for a young man to read Caesar, Cicero and Virgil before he attempts to read Juvenal and Horace and Tacitus; as it is necessary for him to read the Anabasis and Homer before he takes

up the study of Thucydides and Plato, so it would be well for our students in secondary schools to have something that is elementary along the lines of commercial geography and commercial law and industrial history and the keeping of accounts as a preparation for the higher commercial education of our universities.

PRINCIPAL W. J. S. BRYAN, of St. Louis:

There are two thoughts in this connection to which I wish to call attention. I view with a good deal of satisfaction on the one side the introduction of higher commercial education into the colleges, for the reason that I hope to see the effect of that introduction of higher commercial education in the colleges upon the commercial education in secondary schools. I think it will not be questioned that a large part of the pupils desiring to take commercial education in secondary schools have been influenced by the hope of a short cut to business success and with the idea that by so doing they can more quickly fit themselves for entrance into business; and yet I am aware that those who have been engaged in teaching in business colleges, so-called—the best of the business colleges—are very ready to take the position that they can do relatively little for those who come to them with less than a high school education, and that the work they can do for pupils who have that training is of very much greater value. It is true, I believe, that most of the children who wish to take the commercial courses in high schools look for the first opportunity for an immediate entrance into business, and that therefore they do not spend more than the time absolutely necessary in the secondary schools, and they begin to fall out the first year and the second year with quite as much rapidity, if not a very much greater rapidity, than those who take the other courses. If the colleges dignify the work of preparation for commercial life by courses of their own, it

will serve as a very strong suggestion to those in the lower grades that to adequately prepare for commercial life requires much more than a knowledge of those subjects which seem to be very closely related to business work. I mean the study of bookkeeping and of shorthand and of those things which are immediately available. And if we can succeed in giving to these pupils who are seeking to prepare themselves for commercial life the idea that the breadth, culture and power that is obtained from the pursuit of other studies than these very technical studies is essential, we shall do a very great service to those pupils. If we can lead them to feel that the general education—that part of it which in all properly constituted schools constitutes at least fifty or sixty per cent of all the work—is essential to any very adequate preparation for business, and that for the very best preparation for business they must go on beyond that into the college—then we shall have done them a very great service.

PROFESSOR ADAMS:

It may appear as inability to appreciate commerce that I say that in the presence of all these conflicting opinions I agree with almost everybody that has been upon the floor. I am frank to admit that the place of commercial education in universities is not yet settled. There is one point that I should disagree with; that is the view that higher commercial education in the universities is the result of the development of higher commercial education in the high schools. And the reason why universities have taken up the question of higher commercial education is, I think, the fact that the alumni have forced them to do it. In our own case, at least, it was so. In an alumni dinner in Chicago the principal speaker did not happen to get there and the alumni got together and said, "What does this university want?" And they said, "It

needs to get the facilities for preparing men in the higher grades of life." When we recognize the development that has been going on in connection with corporations and with the contracts with labor, and the new ideas that are being interposed by changed industrial conditions respecting legal principles—all these things, I say, thrust upon us the necessity of recognizing the peculiar kind of education which universities only can give for men who propose to enter the higher walks of life.

The main point of my paper has been understood here this morning: I do not believe that it is possible for us to interlace the high schools and universities until they understand what commercial education is for, and I think that a thorough study of the question must impress upon us that the three grades of schools—primary schools, secondary schools and universities—have before them essentially different problems. The line of demarcation in these problems is the line set by industrial evolution itself. The proper method of approach in order to put the high schools and universities into correct relations with each other is not to ask, What does the university want taught in the high schools that it will give credit for? The problem is different; the class that you are appealing to is different; and if you go through the curriculum provided in the universities for higher commercial education you will find that there are only two or three influenced by what is taught in the high school.

I am willing to say that bookkeeping should be taught in the high school; I hope it will be taught; but we cannot give credit for it in the universities. If anyone finds commercial geography advantageous—if that is the experience of high schools—why certainly let them teach it. But when we come to the commercial geography that is taught in the universities it is so different an affair and looks at the thing from so different a point of view that

you must have minds above the minds of fifteen years of age in order to comprehend it.

Now take some of the other studies. We will take law. I think it is quite right that certain law courses should be taught in the intermediary schools. But the object of teaching law—of the "law courses," so-called, "commercial law courses" in the university—should be, in part to inform the student as to the legal conditions under which he is to act. It is not, however, to make every man his own lawyer—it is to give him an insight into the legal structure of the society in which he is called upon to act; and I should say, secondarily, it is to let the business man have an idea of the legal history of England, different from what the law student gets from studying Blackstone. Take the question of science; what do we want with science? Why the fact that industrial development rests upon scientific development and scientific knowledge; we are what we are industrially because of the development of scientific attainments in our country and in the world. We cannot make the business men scientific men, but we can insist upon it that they shall study science enough so that when they call in an expert they will be able to understand the expert. The man to whom is entrusted the handling of funds, must be able independent of the conditions of the stock market, to answer the question, Is there a sound scientific principle at the basis of this prospectus? Now I do not think it is necessary to show that the science and commerce which the higher commercial course is going to furnish is any different from the scientific man's kind of science. The same science given in the high schools is all right for the higher commercial courses. Take mathematics again. Here is one fact: that more businesses are wrecked to-day by the inability of business men to understand ordinary statistics than owing to any other one fact. Now I think that mathematics, by any man who wishes

to prepare himself for the higher walks of life, must be carried through calculus.

What has that to do with the relations between the universities and high schools? I might take every peculiar subject that we are dealing with. Certainly, when we come to this more fundamental question, namely, How can we give the business men of this world the insight into the new industrial conditions that the 20th century is providing, so that they can understand when it is right to make a concession, so that they can understand the relations, the social relations of society? then we answer, History. Here again it does not seem to me a necessary result of the development of higher commercial education in the universities that we should undertake to modify the study of history. History has been modified the last twenty-five years, and every step in that modification is a step of which commercial education can approve.

As a matter of fact, you do find your industrial society stratified; you do find your schools responding to the stratification; and it seems to me that we shall do better in all kinds of education if each grade of schools asks itself honestly, What can we do for this constituency that is coming to us? and anything that is good for that constituency is good pedagogical sense.

The meeting then adjourned to 2:30 p. m.

SECOND SESSION, FRIDAY AFTERNOON.

The Association was called to order at 2:30 p. m. by President Carman. At the opening of the session the President called upon Professor Julius Sachs, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, to address the meeting.

PROFESSOR SACHS:

I am very thankful to you and to the members of the Association for the privilege of being with you. It is a mere chance that has brought me here and it is particularly interesting to find that the same problems which agitate us on the Atlantic coast, still remain unsettled with you in the middle west. I appreciate very much the courteous invitation which you have extended, and in the event that I find that I can add anything which may not be out of place, I shall ask the liberty to avail myself of your invitation.

The Secretary then reported that the Executive Committee had decided to raise $200 in order to meet the expenses of the Commission on Accredited Schools, and moved that the colleges represented in the Commission be asked to contribute to this sum in proportion to the membership in their freshman classes, as provided in the report of the Commission, adopted at the last meeting. After some discussion the matter was, at the request of President Draper, of the University of Illinois, laid over for a time.

Professor Judson, chairman of the Commission on Accredited Schools, then stated the nature of the Commission's report and called upon President Carman, as sec-

retary of the Commission, for a detailed statement. (See appendix for full text of the report.)

Professor Whitney, of the University of Michigan, reported for the Board of Inspectors, a partial list of approved schools.

This brought forth the following:

PROFESSOR JUDSON:

If some of the gentlemen from Ohio are present I will ask one of them to state what was said to the Chairman of the Commission yesterday in regard to certain legislation in that state which I think will be of interest to the Association.

PRINCIPAL HARRIS, of the Central High School, Cleveland:

As a result of the work done by this Association in establishing uniform entrance units, the legislature of Ohio, for the benefit of Colleges of Law, Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy has enacted a law classifying Ohio high schools with reference to their ability to prepare students for admission on certificate to such colleges. The law defines entrance units as these have been defined by this Association. The work of classifying high schools is entrusted by the law to the Commissioner of Common Schools, who has recently published the results of the classification.

The first class of high schools corresponds to those which have been put on the accredited list by the Board of Inspectors of this Association,—the same in number of units, number of weeks, and in required number of periods. The second class of high schools is made up of those teaching fewer weeks in the year and offering fewer units; and the third class includes practically all other

schools that call themselves high schools. Recognition of certificates is denied to high schools that fail to make reports to the School Commissioner. While the law refers only to admission to Colleges of Law, Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmacy, the general result is very readily seen. Many of the schools of the second class will not care to remain upon the second class list. Communities have been stirred to improve their schools. And it is said that in another year we shall have a large increase in the number of the first class high schools in the state. I feel that a great deal of credit is due to the work that has been done in this Association.

Upon request of Professor Judson, President McLean, of the State University of Iowa, then addressed the Association.

PRESIDENT MCLEAN:

I did not know that this inquiry was to be made, but I am very happy to make answer. There is a State Teachers' Association in Iowa, having a "college section." The "college section" consists of fifteen so-called standard colleges, plus the State University. To be a member of this college section there must be a meeting of certain requirements, somewhat along the line of the requirements suggested by your Commission, though not so high as the requirements that you are now suggesting. These colleges have recently, through a conference of the presidents of these colleges with the president of the State University, made arrangements for what might be called a clearing-house at the State University. The blanks, for example, with reference to the accrediting of schools that are sent out officially by the State University, are distributed to these various colleges. These blanks we at the State University now propose to make uniform with the blanks that shall be sent out by this Association to the

colleges of Iowa—the fifteen colleges will also, I understand, accept these same blanks. It therefore becomes clear that we are making progress toward this unification that you desire; only in the State of Iowa a sub-clearing-house for the greater clearing-house that one day must come, under the administration of your Commission, is to be found.

It seemed to me a very interesting thing that just as this Commission was issuing what proposes so much of good, in my opinion, there should be found at least one state in line where all the colleges, with the University, were ready to take up the rope that you throw out. I think that is perhaps what you wanted to know.

The President then called upon President Jordan, of Leland Stanford, Junior, University, to address the meeting. President Jordan spoke as follows:

PRESIDENT JORDAN:

As far as Stanford University is concerned, we have been compelled to allow the different state universities and state authorities to examine their own secondary schools, and then we have taken the various reports of all kinds that come to us as so much evidence; a statement of the high school that a student has done such and such work is to be evidence that it is so. If we feel any doubt we appeal to the State University for more evidence, and if we feel any final doubt we examine the individual.

I was interested somewhat in the discussion of this morning, because it looked as though the whole matter of colleges and schools and secondary schools were drifting into a kind of chaos. As far as I can remember, we have been drifting into chaos ever since the old classical courses were more or less dropped or modified in this country some thirty years ago. It seems to me the best thing possible that we should drift into chaos, and such

work as modification has been in the direction of augmenting the chaotic condition. It seems to me that the individuality of the different schools, and above all the individuality of the different teachers and pupils, were far more important than any general schedule. In many cases the secondary schools will go on and become in a large degree collegiate institutions. They are doing better work, some of them, already than many of the so-called colleges in the nature of advanced work, and it would be a very poor high school that is not doing better advanced work than the smaller colleges of thirty years ago.

Now I do not think it is at all necessary that we should all make the Bachelor of Arts degree signify the same thing in all universities or in the same degree. If Columbia Univrsity wants to give the degree in two years, that would be a good idea. As things are, *we* shall continue making it four years, and we should be glad to make it five years, and we should be glad to throw overboard the whole bachelor's degree. All degrees are mere names, and the attempt to make the same name signify the same thing in all parts of the country is not going to be successful and is not to be desired.

So I am in favor of chaos, because during all this chaos we are keeping in mind certain things. Among these, the desirability of advanced work that is not strictly professional; the desirability of building up our advanced work on the basis of science and literature and whatever may be necessary for the professions. We are tending all the time toward making more and more enlightened professional men. We are gaining by bringing all the various kinds of schools together. The students in technical lines certainly help the classical students by giving them an idea of seriousness which they did not always have before. And it is a great thing for the technical students to be brought into relations with the students in Greek, because

it tends to prevent them from becoming illiterate and from passing final judgment upon the things that we call humanities.

I want to say that the most hopeful thing in the present situation is the condition of absolute chaos into which we are drifting, because it means the individualization of American schools, the individual influence of teachers and the opportunity for students to get whatever they want in some place or other—making the individual more important than the system is.

The work of the Commission was then thrown open for general discussion.

PROFESSOR SACHS:

That condition of chaos which President Jordan approves of, I take it, is to be the preliminary to a settling of the difficulties which confront us now, but I hardly think that we are likely to reach a settling until the several parts make clear to themselves—far clearer than is just now the case—their limitations.

Speaking now for the secondary schools and as a member of the secondary profession, the feeling that is most prominent in my mind is that no greater danger besets the secondary teacher than the blind hope that he can at some time or other, or through some peculiar circumstances, supplant the work of early college years. I believe we are as far removed from that as it is conceivable to be at the present moment. I have the feeling that our secondary work is distinctly inferior—in quality particularly, if not in quantity; certainly in quality—to what it should be, and it is vain to attempt to undertake what is beyond our province with the peculiar conditions that are just now most manifest in the teaching profession. Our teachers are not—taking it in the broadest sense—competent to do the work which they attempt, and there is no

need of our blinding ourselves to that fact. Until we create throughout the country the feeling that the teacher must grow, must feel what the peculiar responsibilities of his condition are, we are going to bring disaster into the general course of education.

I see no growth, no advance in these recent years—I mean in the quality of the work. Looking back upon the college graduate of thirty years ago and comparing him with the average product that graduates from our colleges to-day and enters the teaching profession, I think that the present product is far inferior to the former products—to what the former representative brought in the way of seriousness. And the worst feature that characterizes him is this aimless groping for situations which he is not competent to fill.

If we could only make it clear to ourselves where we should put the limitations upon our own efforts, and then make those limitations marked for our pupils, there would be distinct hope. We can teach political economy if certain schools feel that that is a proper subject, but let it be clearly understood what kind of political economy—what small degree of political economy—we can teach. We can also teach commercial subjects; but let the difference between them and the kind of work which the college does, be constantly kept before the mind of teachers and pupils.

This "elective system," which has received so much approval in so many quarters and which certainly is a well founded reaction against the older conservatism that formerly prevailed, has brought with it a multitude of evils. Our pupils are led to entertain the belief that they can do anything; that the work outlined by the university is work that really requires of them no attention; that they have gone over it. Now a teacher full of conscientiousness, knowing the difficulties that the young pupil encounters, will not foster such thoughts in his mind;

and therefore I for one would rather not see that constant extension which takes in subject after subject, and course after course, and which is rapidly disintegrating the moral fiber of our pupils—for that, I think, is going rapidly to decline under this movement along the line of least resistance in which pupil and teacher share equally.

As to this system of accrediting schools, I have been very much interested in the report of your commission, because you are very much more favorably placed in the middle west than we in the east. You have certain centers, and those centers are powerful enough to control and influence the secondary school system. We had chaos of the kind that Dr. Jordan mentioned, as far as our secondary schools are concerned. We made the first step out of that chaos when the college examination board was established, and endeavored to bring about this at least: that the examinations should not be as varied as the colleges that undertook them. I think those who have the examinations and the work of the examining board most at heart feel that the last word has not been spoken on the subject. It is a movement in the right direction with them, and under existing conditions in the east it is far better than we have had. We hope that, somehow or other, this system of accrediting shall some time or other find its way into our schools, but we hope it will be done with great caution. We haven't state universities—central institutions that command the attention of a whole community in the state; but what we have are a number of colleges of first class importance, and we trust that at no very distant day six or possibly ten of those institutions shall create a body which shall pass upon the merits of secondary schools. No one institution—not Harvard University, nor Yale, nor Columbia—can undertake, or should undertake, to do that, but by dividing up the district among themselves, with full confidence in each other's judgment, there is no reason why there should

not be a hundred or more schools in that district passed upon after the most careful examination, frequently tested and then accepted by the related institutions as desirable schools.

To me the great advantage of this accrediting system seems to be the greater distinction and the satisfaction that such a system of repeated and constant scrutiny brings to the schools themselves. The present system of examinations is in every respect unsatisfactory to the schools. It does not give them an opportunity to present under the proper conditions their powers. They are informally represented at the examinations by pupils, and they are judged informally, but none the less severely, by the condition of mind in which their pupils find themselves at these examinations. I think that every teacher of standing and earnestness would much rather be subjected to a very close scrutiny, which such a Board of Inspectors would institute, and then go on record as having attained a standard that entitled him to recognition, and then work to maintain that position for a number of years. In that respect I think that the plan of the middle west and of the west generally, has much to commend it. I think on the other hand that we of the east may not be as far remote as appears at the present moment from a helpful solution of the difficulties.

But I would repeat once more that every effort should be made to have the teachers in the school recognize that the burden of the proof rests upon them—not to undertake too much, but to endeavor to grow within the limits that are legitimately their own.

PRINCIPAL BOLTWOOD, of the Evanston Township High School:

I should take most decided issue with the idea that the pupils who entered college in my time, in 1849, were better fitted in any respect than those that we send now.

And I am speaking with some assurance of this, because of my own college class—'53. How in the world the secondary schools could be better taught in those days, when they were the product of colleges who received their graduates with a much shorter limit of time than we have now, and when they were taught, as a rule, by a much smaller proportion of college graduates (take it in my own class: those who were fitted were fitted on the narrowest possible lines), I don't know. The colleges had their requirements, but nothing was taught in the schools, particularly in these secondary preparatory schools, except the bare limit. Phillips Exeter in those days taught just enough algebra to comply with the limit—which took it to quadratic equations. The sciences were utterly ignored. The teachers (in my experience in New England) that were in the various "one-horse" academies, as they were called, were very seldom college graduates, and if they were, they represented those that were trained along very narrow lines. Our curriculum in all the high schools and secondary schools was narrow. We didn't attempt to do very much of anything, except what could be done by the average pupil in three years; and in fact, in Amherst Academy, where I fitted, I did my work in two years, and it was not because I was an extraordinary student, but simply because I could do in that time the minimum that was required for entrance into college. There is a much larger proportion of well-equipped schools now, and the work that is done now is that which prepares students for the wider range of colleges. They did it on narrow lines and with a certain degree of intensity; but comparing the work of the colleges of those times with the colleges now, that same preparation would be laughed to scorn if we should offer it to any college, even to those who should allow them to pursue their work along the narrowest lines.

The colleges are raising their requirements system-

atically; the secondary schools, so far as I know, are meeting them, and I cannot believe for one moment that we send pupils that are less qualified to do college work.

In regard to this question of accredited schools, the preparatory schools have got to be heard from, and that very soon. Otherwise you get a report of a committee of seven and they hold up a requirement in history that the public schools do not believe in as a rule. The colleges ought to allow free equivalents. We want colleges to allow a reasonable system of equivalents for good work that is done along the line of college work, and we do not want to be limited to a particular number of pages of a particular author or subject; we do not want to be tied too sharply to hours. One female college the other day was rejected because its periods in science, which were up to the letter of the requirement, were not one hour a day; —they were only 45 minutes. And they put down that the book should not have less than 300 pages, and I counted up that ours had only 295, and I suppose that ours will be rejected on that account. I do not believe in insisting on these minutiae and insisting that the public schools particularly shall be compelled to fit their courses to meet the conditions of a committee of seven, or seventy, that sit up in their judgment seat and ask the schools of the whole United States to shape themselves to their idea of what they like to do with a student when he comes to college.

Principal Harris, Central High School, Cleveland, moved that the report of the Commission be accepted and adopted.

This motion was seconded by Superintendent Nightingale.

President Draper, of the University of Illinois:

I suppose there are quite a number here who know that I have been a doubting Thomas about this whole matter. I am as anxious to agree with my associates in

educational work as anyone can be and I am not utterly beyond hope of being able to agree about this matter; but I never become very enthusiastic over anything until I am convinced, and I am not convinced about this whole thing. I do not want the university that I represent to be misunderstood or to be injured by the fact that I am personally not convinced, either. I would like to get into this whole subject rather thoroughly. I would like to ask some questions of my colleagues, and I would particularly like to put some questions to Dean Judson, who has been thoroughly immersed in this movement and for whose opinion I have the highest regard and respect; and with his leave I will ask these questions informally, for the purpose of going into the heart of the subject, to the end that we may all have light and that we may go at this thing enthusiastically or indifferently, or let it alone.

First, I ought to say that I have been somewhat puzzled by reason of the fact that when we met out at Northwestern University seven or eight years ago it was definitely and expressly agreed—it was not only commonly understood by all who participated in the formation of this association, but it was expressed in our fundamental law,—that there should be no legislation, no action in this body calculated to discriminate for or against anybody. There was to be no action in this body which should be binding upon individuals or which should be looked upon as within the range of such possibilities. I say I have always had that in mind, and it seems to me that in going into this subject in the way we have, and particularly when we get to the point of levying an assessment of $200, that we are radically departing from the fundamental principles upon which this organization started out.

Now it may be well to depart. I am not saying that it is not; I only say that we started out from that standpoint; and as I came from the east, I am a little slow in getting up with the body of the procession in the event of

a radical departure. However, if there is any real point about this whole business, or—perhaps better than that —if there is no harm about it, if there is no unfairness to anybody about it—and by anybody I mean people who are doing the best they can and going to their utmost limits of wisdom and strength—then I should like to agree about it. Now I would like to ask Dean Judson two or three questions, and I think he will believe me when I say that I do not ask these questions with a view to controversy, but solely and only with a view to light and understanding.

Mr. Chairman, I would like to ask Dean Judson what he considers the point of this whole movement, and before asking him to answer that I will say that I have looked upon the real point of the movement in the east to be the accommodation of students in getting entrance to college, to the end that they might have the examinations near at home and not go to college upon any uncertainty. We are not put in any such situation as that here, so the point of this action in this body cannot be the same as that in the case of the New England Association or in the case of the Association of the Middle States and Maryland. What is the real point, what is the educational advantage from this movement in this territory?

DEAN JUDSON:

I was not myself in Evanston when this movement was initiated. At the sixth annual meeting of the Association in Evanston (I read from the records) a paper was read by Dean S. A. Forbes, of the University of Illinois, on the desirability of so confederating the north central colleges and universities as to secure essentially uniform or equivalent entrance requirements. As the outcome of the paper (I am reading from the records) and the discussion which followed it, a committee of which Dean S. A. Forbes, of the University of Illinois, was

chairman (See Report of the Commission on Accredited Schools, p. 3) was appointed to take into consideration on the following day some line of action on the suggestions thrown out in the discussion of the paper. Then follows the report, which was adopted by the Association. In other words, the movement originated in the very interesting paper of Dean Forbes, of the University of Illinois, and he was the chairman of the committee which formulated this plan. It was adopted by the Association, and my understanding of the foundation of it was this: that it is not legislation by the Association, in the sense of binding any of the members of the Association to anything against their will; that those members of the Association who choose to come into the work and co-operate with it are free to do so; that the assessment—"contribution" would more accurately describe it to-day—is simply a voluntary contribution by those colleges in the Association that see fit to co-operate, and therefore of course is not in any sense an assessment upon the colleges of the Association. This is a voluntary affair on the part of such colleges and secondary schools as see fit to take it up.

President Draper:

Any "voluntary contribution" that has any element of either legal or moral coercion about it is the worst thing in all the world, isn't it? You would look upon a college in this territory—you people who are specially interested in carrying this work on in entire good faith and, as you believe, to the educational advantage of this territory—you would look upon a college in the territory which would refuse to participate in this contribution, as you call it, as mean—small?

Dean Judson:

The first question of the President I decline to answer, because it is a general proposition in ethics. As to the second question, the President has asked my opinion as

to the quality of an institution that does not contribute being mean. That I shall have to answer in the negative most emphatically. I do not think that is the case. It seems to me that institutions are perfectly free to abstain in whole or in part if they see fit to do so. I should regard that simply as a difference of opinion. I think when I was young I had a notion that the fellow who didn't agree with me was mean. It seems to me the fundamental principle of this Association is absolute freedom. I agree with the President there. Absolute freedom—and we can do just as we please and respect one another in doing so. I speak for myself, President Draper, but I think I voice the sentiment of the entire Association.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I think we are agreed there.

DEAN JUDSON:

I come to the President's next question: as to the purpose of this movement in our section of the country. I look at it as having a double purpose.

(1) The convenience of students is subserved in this way. It is the general practice throughout our section of the country to accept a student without examinations by the college which admits him. There we are practically all agreed; and I fancy that we are going to continue in that system here. Now if all our students went from a given section of the country to a college in the immediate vicinity, it would be a local question and very simple. That is not the case. Students come to the institutions from various parts of the country. I venture to say that a considerable number come to Champaign from other states than Illinois. And when I was in Minnesota we had students from Iowa and the Dakotas. And so throughout our territory. Now in many cases, if a stu-

dent can be reasonably sure that having complied with certain conditions he is likely to be admitted to any institution within the limits of the territory, why it is a convenience to him, and I think that is a tangible, practical convenience. Now you may say in reply to that that of course a student may go to any of these colleges and conform to the conditions and be admitted. That is true. The point is, however, that the student does not always have a clear knowledge of what those conditions are. And that puts it clearly in the minds of every pupil and teacher throughout that district.

(2) The second purpose is the convenience of the colleges concerned. If we have a fair degree of unanimity throughout the colleges in the Association, why the colleges in the district know that if a student comes from a certain school they will have no more bother about him. And when the work of the Association is carried on further, as I believe it will be, the average college will not look further than the fact that the school is an accredited school within the Association. In other words, it will lessen work.

Now take a case of this sort: Here is a system of inspecting by one of the colleges, which extends over a given number of schools, that is, in the given state. Another college is in another state and has to inspect another state. And so on. Now some of those schools are inspected and inspected and inspected by a great variety of inspectors. The question is, is it worth while? I am inclined to think that when this system is worked out and the whole thing is somewhat unified, a great deal of that inspection will become unnecessary and will be dropped. That is to say, multiplication of work and multiplication of expense will be stopped.

(3) I look at it therefore as a convenience for the secondary schools in simplifying the relations to all the colleges in the Association.

I believe therefore that the purpose is to subserve the convenience of the colleges, the convenience of the secondary schools, and the convenience of the students because of prescribed courses in the secondary schools. Those are the primary purposes as I see them.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

What will you say about the influence of this movement upon the educational advance—as a stimulus to public education? Do you think it is advantageous or otherwise?

DEAN JUDSON:

Can't see how it would be otherwise, from my point of view. I can't see how it is any serious injury to education for schools to work together, and that is what this amounts to—co-operation. Now it has been the purpose of the Commission, not to lay down hard and fast rules, but to allow fair play for individual conditions and to lay down such general conditions as can be conformed to without any serious difficulty.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Well, Dean Judson, what do you say of the influence of this movement upon colleges that are not organized under its terms, or upon high schools that are not governed by its operations?

DEAN JUDSON:

So far as I can see, the tendency has been to make them come up to those conditions by raising the standard of their work. Or—I think this is entirely possible—suppose that a given school can furnish all the work that is laid down in our little manual here. Very good: that is a school of a certain grade. Another school is perhaps not able to do all that. What can they do? They can conform to it as far as they go. I think, President Dra-

per, the tendency would be to lift the standard in one of those two ways; either by adding to their resources in various ways so that they can do a larger and better class of work, or to do a better class of work in the field which they cover. Now as to the first, it was my experience in Minnesota that very often a school was not backed up as the community and the state could afford to do. We were told by the state university that they could not admit our schools. Why not? Because "There are such and such things lacking." Well, in the great majority of cases we found that that was the fault of the school board, and they then supplied those things that were lacking.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Well, Dean Judson, you will recognize the fact, I have no doubt, that in the territory of this Association there are hundreds if not thousands of high schools in ordinary towns whose students the University of Chicago —to say nothing of the University of Illinois—is willing to accept, who are in moderate circumstances, with a small number of teachers, and who have had about all the pressure that they can stand—high schools that are sustained about up to the limit of the town that supports them—won't you?

DEAN JUDSON:

I have seen so many of those that I think I should recognize them on sight.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

What do you say about putting more pressure upon them?

DEAN JUDSON:

I will say this, that so far as the pressure is concerned it is brought to bear where it will bring some fruit. Now when we come to a town where nothing can be done, we cannot do it, that's all.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I for one think that the great body of high schools are doing all they can.

DEAN JUDSON:

I think I should be readier to admit that, if it had not been for what I saw in Minnesota. They said the very same thing, and yet some fifteen or sixteen years ago when I was there we had, I think, only some dozen or twenty high schools that were of the first class, and I think that I was told yesterday there are now 141. Now I don't believe, from my knowledge of the state, that any one of those towns is doing for those schools any more than it could do. They thought then they were doing all they could do. As a matter of fact, they are doing a great deal more, and I do not think they are suffering very seriously in the process.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Dean Judson, you understand that this system, carried into full operation, will in no wise interfere with existing instrumentalities?

DEAN JUDSON:

That has been its fundamental principle from the beginning.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

That is, where a state university maintains a system of inspection, that it is not to be expected to give it over in any way or to modify it because of this movement?

DEAN JUDSON:

That is none of our business.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I thought so. I am glad we agree about that. On that point, however, I think a state university is bound to help every educational instrumentality in a state. I do

not think it is entitled to do anything which produces results which it is fearful of permitting everybody else to have the advantage of, I may say.

DEAN JUDSON:

No objection to that proposition.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I don't believe in educational selfishness or monopoly any more than you do. Now then, is it the purpose of the Commission to employ an inspector of its own?

DEAN JUDSON:

Not where existing agencies supply the place. Of course there are states and there are communities where those agencies do not exist. In those cases we shall in the end have to employ inspectors of our own. In the existing condition we have not had to, and where that was done by the states they put their officers at our service.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Now that is all easy so far as the University of Chicago is concerned, but it might bear very hard upon others, because you are rich and we are poor.

DEAN JUDSON:

I don't see the bearing of that.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Why, here will be a very considerable expense connected with this thing that won't be levied upon us that participated in it, but we will be expected to contribute.

DEAN JUDSON:

You refer, of course, to future responsibilities.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Yes.

DEAN JUDSON:
Not present?

PRESIDENT DRAPER:
No. Suppose—if I may explain a little more—suppose we come to a state where there is no existing instrumentality, and your Commission thinks that a dozen high schools in that state ought to be visited and inspected. You would doubtless agree with us that reports don't count for a very great deal?

DEAN JUDSON:
They are simply prima facie.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:
That there must be an inspection in order to know about it?

DEAN JUDSON:
Yes.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:
Now suppose your Commission concluded to send a man to inspect a score of high schools in a state where there is no existing instrumentality. All the colleges in this enterprise would be expected to bear that expense? Well, I don't know that that is unfair, but I think that this ought to be said: there are other state universities here; they have opinions of their own, and there are some legal difficulties, I think, about a state university bearing this expense.

DEAN JUDSON:
That is, of course, a question for legal gentlemen to settle. I think that Michigan sends out an inspector. The inspector of the University of Illinois, until he left the state, was a member of our board of inspectors. Wis-

consin, Iowa, Missouri have their own agencies, and by means of those agencies have been enabled to affect a large part of the work in this territory.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Dean Judson, who is to determine who freshmen students are?

DEAN JUDSON:

In the University of Illinois?

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

No; your commission; this commission. How is the matter of counting freshmen students to be determined?

DEAN JUDSON:

It is to be determined by information supplied to the Commission by each institution concerned. That is, our secretary will write to President Draper requesting him to inform us how many freshmen he has.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Well, I might have a different view from what the head of another institution might have as to what constitutes a freshman student; that is, as to who comes within the meaning of the requirement.

DEAN JUDSON:

President Draper's view is law for the University of Illinois.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Very far from it. Now you've gone wrong. But then good men do go wrong once in a while.

DEAN JUDSON:

I want to tell you that I am dead right on that. In this Commission we do not know any authority but President Draper.

SUPT. A. F. NIGHTINGALE:

As a member of the Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, I want to say that Dean Judson is correct. (Laughter.)

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

The university, Dean Judson, requires 15 units, reckoning in the way you do, for admission to its college of literature, arts and science, and does not require as many units as that for admission to its college of engineering. Are the engineering students to be counted as freshmen?

DEAN JUDSON:

I will ask the Secretary to answer that, because he has had experience with that directly.

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

Of course the question could not be put to the Secretary in just that way. The Secretary encountered precisely that difficulty. The difficulty about this matter of levying was a question that was considered at the last meeting of the Commission. Letters were sent out and an attempt was made to determine from catalogues the number of freshmen. That would have been an easy matter in earlier years when there were not many colleges and each freshman was classed as a freshman. But in the University of Chicago that is not so. In this matter should we include the engineering students or should we not?

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

There may be a college that has nothing but technical students.

DEAN JUDSON:

Of course I suppose that it is clear that the requirements that are made in the college of liberal arts are not those that would apply to technical schools. But at the

same time that is a matter which is open and should be settled, and I could not presume to settle it.

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

As Secretary I would like to make one further statement. No expense has been incurred up to the present time that has not been met by the Association, but of the expense this year, about $100 was, as I understand it, incurred for the printing of blanks and the report of the Commission.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

But, Mr. Chairman, apparently there is to be no great expense connected with it.

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

That is the thought of the Commission.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Is not this of advantage to the high schools represented in the Association as well as to the colleges that are represented? Why should not this whole expense be borne out of general Association funds?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

It was suggested at the meeting of the Executive Committee that was held at two o'clock to-day that the money be raised by asking each institution to contribute a certain amount.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I assume to say, Sir, that there is a flavor about the payment of this expense on the basis of the number of students that we don't hardly like to have go out.

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

Of course, as the committee said, the report was hurriedly made and it was hurriedly adopted. I think it is in order to adopt any modification that may be desired.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Mr. President, how many colleges are on the roll that would be assessed?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

It would be a little difficult to answer that because of our complicated arrangement of institutional and individual members. There are 58 members of the Association that come under the head of colleges and universities. There are not, in the universities, more than half of that number represented in the Association.

PROFESSOR SCOTT:

A rapid running over of the list discloses 32 colleges. If the sum were evenly divided it would amount to about $6.25 for each college.

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

The difficulty was encountered by the fact that whatever expense is incurred is usually met by the person who acts.

DEAN JUDSON:

This plan, so far as expenses are concerned, is no part of the report of the Commission. It is action taken by the Association and is the foundation on which the Commission was formed, and we have nothing to do with that except to carry out the instructions of the Association. It ought fairly to be stated that this is primarily a University of Illinois movement.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Dean Judson, that article that you refer to declares that the expense shall be borne, as I recollect it, by the institutions represented on the Commission?

DEAN JUDSON:

No. This is the report of the Commission, and I find on the minutes of the Association—not of the Commission—that after considerable discussion (this was not the act of the Commission at all)—number 3 on page 5: "We recommend the expenses necessarily attendant upon the work of this Commission be assumed by the colleges represented on it in proportion to the membership of the freshman classes."

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Now what is meant by "represented?" Having a member on the Commission?

DEAN JUDSON:

Yes, sir.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

But who may be members of the Commission?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

The understanding was that each college or university that had a freshman class not under fifty should be asked to have a representative on the commission. And then after these have been appointed the President of the Association shall appoint a corresponding number of representatives on the Commission.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

And then this expense shall be borne by those having a freshman class of at least fifty? What is approximately the number of the Commission? That expense of $200 would be borne by how many institutions?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

About twenty.

PROFESSOR GROVE, of Ohio Wesleyan University:

We probably would catalogue in our freshman class something over two hundred students, but we havn't anything like as much money as the Chicago University and it may come pretty heavily on us. I don't quite like the idea of putting the amount on the college that has the most freshmen.

DEAN JUDSON:

The University of Chicago is willing to pay any share that the Association compels it to.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Then I understand that there is nothing in this volume that is before the house at the present time?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

That volume was adopted a year ago.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

That is that list of accredited schools before the Association?

PRESIDENT CARMAN:

No.

PROFESSOR C. M. WOODWARD, of Washington University:

If we adopt that report, do we accept that list? Because I want to know just exactly what force that report would have if we adopted it. There was only one high school on that accredited list in the State of Missouri. In a city that has three high schools I understand that there was one from that state and only one. I cannot understand exactly how it is. Now I suppose every college in Missouri—I know Washington University—has a com-

mittee which attends to that matter. We have an accredited list of our own, every school mentioned in which has been examined by a member of the committee or by representatives of the faculty. Now I wish to know, if this is adopted, are we to understand that we accept this accredited list as a part of our accredited list? And if we do not, is it discourteous to the Association?

DEAN JUDSON:

May I again answer the preliminary question first? The accepting of a school by the Commission depends upon two things: first, the filing of a report by the school; second, upon matters of inspection through state inspectors or similar sources. Now in a number of cases schools have not filed their reports. Of course we can act only upon those in which we have a report of the school on the one hand and adequate inspection on the other. Now we have not a report from the other two schools. And that is why a great number of schools do not appear on this list.

Now, secondly, it is understood that he action of the Commission is advisory on the members. It is at the option of any college to accept or not to accept, as you please. We should not regard it as a discourtesy if you did not. It would be a matter simply of your judgment.

PRESIDENT BRYAN, of the University of Indiana:

I would point out the case of Indiana. We have there a machinery for the taking of these examinations; the State Board of Education is an official body composed of the presidents of the state institutions, and they choose schools in the state, the conditions being substantially the same as those here. And then I have one further question. I have realized the advantages of this system of accrediting schools as applied to a single state. I have seen for a number of years how it tends to bring up the

town to the best established high schools. We have in Indiana a state law under which every township is entitled to a high school, and in many of the townships of the state every township has a high school, and every child is entitled to a free high school education whether it resides in the township or not. The general effect has been to bring up the standard, and I realize all the advantages of it. But on the other hand I have a theory that we are tending in America toward the rigid fixation of our entire school system and that we are fixing it too long—far longer than it was in this country twenty-five year ago or before that, and as long as it is in France or Germany at the present time; and I am afraid that twenty-five years from now we shall have a system of twenty years of school life, from the age of six, rigidly fixed, from which it would be almost impossible for us to escape, and therefore I think we should be slow to control the matter of fixing such a long period.

PRINCIPAL ROBINSON, of St. Paul:

I notice in the report that only one school in Minnesota was mentioned, and that no school in Minneapolis or St. Paul was mentioned. I do not think that is any reason for objecting to the report. It is not to be expected that the report shall include every school in the country. The first report would necessarily be incomplete. I don't believe any Minnesota man is going to take exception to the fact that only one school is mentioned, although in the case of a state where the state inspection was rigid and thorough, as it is under the state law of Minnesota, the problem would be easier to get at the status of a good many of the schools than it is in some other states. Now with reference to the point of the last speaker, I can't see that that has anything to do with this report—the matter of shortening the period of school life. I am frankly in favor of it, but I cannot see that that has anything to do

with the adoption of the report. And I would like to see the adoption of the report.

THE PRESIDENT:

If there is no exception, the Chair will infer that in adopting the report the list of schools is adopted. Principal Harris moved that the report of the Commission be accepted and adopted. This motion was seconded by Superintendent Nightingale.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Why is it that the report is not printed until the 10th of June?

PROFESSOR WHITNEY:

It is according to the regulation adopted last year. That gives the Commission time to receive the reports of the different schools.

PRINCIPAL HARRIS:

I would like to inquire if the Commossion is ready to accept the accredited schools of the state of Ohio? The state commission has classified three classes of high schools in Ohio, and so far as I know, all the schools of the first class would be entitled to recognition from this Commission. Would this Commission accept the recommendation of the State Commissioner of Ohio?

PROFESSOR WHITNEY:

I cannot answer what the Commission would do, but I can tell what I think they ought to do. It is the opinion of the Board of Inspectors that no school should be placed upon this list unless there was someone present who had actually examined that school. It is easy enough to bill a school on paper; what we want is someone there to be able to answer the questions that the board will ask regarding each individual school.

PRESIDENT HOWARD AYERS, of the University of Cincinnati:

I would like to ask another question. The University of Cincinnati has a list of its own, which does not cover the entire list for the simple reason that we have not sent our examiners all over the state. Would this Commission accept the list of the University of Cincinnati?

PROFESSOR WHITNEY:

I might say that this board of five inspectors was created to hold office for one year and then give way to another board, and it was the intention of this board to act thus: the board would set a time for meeting and then they would like the inspectors of all the institutions in the whole territory to be present and confer with them regarding schools, and then the board was to decide whether of the schools represented each one individually should be placed upon this list or not. When that time comes the inspector of the University of Cincinnati would be invited to be present and to present the list of schools that he has. The Commission thought it would be better to present a partial list at this time than to present none at all, but the understanding of the Commission was, I think, that this list was to be presented, but not printed until this list was made complete in June.

PRESIDENT JESSE, of the University of Missouri:

I would like to know whether it would not be exceedingly embarrassing to some of us to have that list appear. For instance, in the state of Missouri, where we have been maintaining a system of inspection for years in the university, there is only one Missouri high school, and that was put on that list without any consultation with the inspector of schools in Missouri. I do not mean that that inspection should have been had, nor do I mean to criticize; but with quite a large number of schools of second-

ary character and of the best quality in practice, it would be a little embarrassing to us to have that list go out with only one Missouri school on it and a number of Missouri gentlemen here present. Why, my mail would become voluminous with inquiries as to how that happened. I suggest that we might receive the work of the inspectors as far as it has gone, and adopt the rest that is to come.

DEAN DENNEY, of Ohio State University:

I should be very sorry to see this list adopted so far as the State of Ohio is concerned. I think there is an entire misconception here as to the classification that has been made by the State School Commissioner of Ohio. That classification of high schools has been made upon paper reports sent in by the schools themselves, and is not the result of inspection of those high schools. As for giving to the members of this Commission or to this Board of Inspectors the information necessary for them to judge whether the graduates of such schools are fit to enter the colleges and universities represented here, why that information is utterly lacking. The list that has been prepared by the Commissioner of Schools of the State of Ohio is, as I said, but a purely paper list and not the result of inspection or examination.

There is, however, actual inspection of high schools going on in the State of Ohio at the present time. Within a year the Ohio State University has provided for and appointed an official inspector, or visitor, of high schools, and he has been occupied during the present year in visiting the principal high schools of the state. Now if this board of inspectors desires information as to Ohio high schools, it may go to the Commissioner's report, but I should recommend that it go to Mr. Boyd, the high school visitor of the Ohio State University, who has inspected the high schools of Ohio and who is here present.

DEAN WOODWARD, of Washington University:

It seems to me that we are now getting down to a point to show the entire worthlessness of this report. If any body of men is to go to each individual state or to each individual university and ask them if they have examined such and such and such a school—"Yes." "Did you find out where they go?" "Yes." "Is it on your approved list?" "Yes." "Then it goes on to our list."

Now what does it mean? It doesn't mean anything. It is not going to add one straw of information to anybody. It gives no force, because we do not conduct any new examinations. We impose no new tests. We simply take the examinations that have already been made, and adopt lists that have already been adopted. Therefore, I think it is worthless. It conveys no information to me that is worth having.

PRESIDENT KIRK, of the Kirksville Normal School:

I am going to vote for the omission of the printing of this list of schools because I shall feel just about as President Jesse when I get back, but I think if it could be understood what the purpose of the Commission is and what the purpose of this board, represented by Mr. Whitney, the chairman, is, that you would approve of it. In the report of the Commission made and adopted last year, it is provided that there are certain fifteen units by which high schools and secondary schools shall be known to be approved by all institutions. The purpose of this report made by Mr. Whitney is to show, when it shall become a completed report and every state has an opportunity to be fully represented in it—the object is to show all the secondary schools in these eleven states who meet all the requirements of this Association, so that in the State of Missouri while the university has perhaps 125 schools approved according to its standard, there should be perhaps forty or fifty when they have a fair chance to show

claims, which would be on its approved list reported by Mr. Whitney. And I want to say on behalf of these five inspectors, that I think they have done some very arduous labor and they have tried very hard to reach all the states, but there has not been time in which they could do that, and I think we are under some obligations to them for the great struggle that they have made. At the same time I am sure there would be the feeling that is represented here by President Jesse when the people know that the high schools have not had a fair chance to be represented. Therefore I think a motion to postpone the printing of the names should prevail.

PROFESSOR WHITNEY:

I don't know of anyone here that wants to print. I know this board of inspectors don't want to print this list. The idea was simply to make a provisional report, and I said at the beginning that we were very much embarrassed trying to get a quorum. Some of the members of this board of inspectors have never been able to meet with us, and the Commission said yesterday: "Go ahead and make a partial list." We do not want to make a formal report; we are not ready to report; we simply can show what we have done up to the present time. The report of the Commission states the standard of these various schools. Now the University of Michigan has, I think, upon its list about 250. I don't know how many are on here; perhaps fifty or seventy-five; we have not been able to reach the others. Some of them will not rise to the standard we desire for years.

PRESIDENT AYERS, of the University of Cincinnati:

The state of Ohio has done exactly what this Commission proposes to do. Its list has been made out by the highest authority in the state with reference to common schools, and there is no question but what all of the best

high schools of the state of Ohio are in the list of the first class. Whether there are other schools not entitled to be there remains to be seen. Now with reference to the other lists, I am not on the floor to-day to defend the list of the state commissioner. The University of Cincinnati has not accepted it. We make our own examinations and have done it for three years. But we haven't covered the whole state. Now the question is, whether the Commission is going to accept a list of several universities, and if so, whether in the list to be published in June the Commission will accept these several lists if sent in. In the city of Cincinnati we have three large high schools. There was only one mentioned in that list, and that in the highest. Now there are two other schools. It seems to me a very pressing question whether we are to make up a list or not,—how long we are going to use it, and whether we are going to get a satisfactory list of all the high schools covered by that report.

President Draper moved as an amendment that the list be withdrawn until next year. Dean Judson, with the consent of the Association, withdrew the list and also requested that the report of the Board of Inspectors be regarded as a report of progress.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:
The understanding being that no list is adopted?

DEAN JUDSON:
Yes.

Dean Judson's request was then granted by consent.

PROFESSOR JAMES, of Northwestern University:
I think this report, if adopted, will help us very decidedly in this state. For four years we have been working on this very problem that has been worked out in Iowa

very successfully. There are six members of the commission that was appointed in Illinois. It seems to me it would mean a very great deal for us in Illinois if President Draper is converted to this report. I dont' know that he is.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

Oh yes, I am. I want to make you all happy.

PROFESSOR JAMES:

I see Dean Kinley is present. He met with the Commission in Springfield and the very same argument that has been brought out to-day was brought out at that time. The Commission adjourned, to be called on the future call of the chairman of the Commission, and I am waiting to see what is to be done here to-day and to see whether we can have the co-operation of the institutions of the state before this local commission shall be called. If this report is to be adopted to-day we are then in a position to make a list of accredited schools, such as now obtains in Iowa, and I think that will help very materially.

There is one point, however, that needs to be touched on. It does not apply particularly to the work of the North Central Association. There are in the state of Illinois a good many so-called 'colleges.' What we are trying to do in Illinois is to have a certain minimum requirement for admission to this accredited list. Now it seems to me that we in the North Central Association, can agree upon certain standards of admission to the freshman class that will help the college situation in all of these states.

Farther, I believe it will be a good plan to prepare a uniform requirement for high schools. There are some high schools who want our help. They are not willing to take the report of any one institution. They are will-

ing to take the report of a combination of institutions. One school board can be affected, perhaps, by the University of Illinois; another would prefer to take a report coming from the University of Chicago. So I think we can bring the pressure upon those high schools that can just as well as not enter upon such a course as has been here outlined, and for the smaller high schools I think we have enough of the township high schools for those who graduate from the small high schools to enter—or they can go to the university, such as the University of Illinois or the others in the state.

PROFESSOR KINLEY, of the University of Illinois:

Our action at Springfield last winter was not in any sense intended to prejudice us or to foster opposition here. There are some technical matters involved in that that are not involved in this.

The motion to accept and adopt the report of the Commission was then put and was carried unanimously.

The matter of raising money to meet the expenses of the Commission was then brought up again. Professor James moved that the expense of this work be distributed among the colleges and universities represented in the Association, in proportion to their total enrollment as given in their last catalogues, including the professional schools.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

When this proposition was first advanced two or three years ago, the expectation was that there was to be a very considerable expense connected with it. It was out of that expectation, I take it, that the proposition grew to levy a tax upon the colleges deemed to be

interested, in proportion to the number of their incoming classes. Now there is to-day no very considerable expense connected with it. It is really only a very small matter. It is very possible that the expense of next year won't be $200. I think that there is danger of a surplus in the treasury. I suggest that the way to dispose of this small expense is to make it an Association charge and direct the Executive Committee to make the membership fee a little larger, if need be, or direct the Executive Committee to report to us how much advance in membrship fee there ought to be to make sure of covering this expense.

PROFESSOR JAMES:

It seems to me that if this Association is going to do the work that it ought to do, we ought to get in all the colleges, if possible, within the territory covered,—that is, if we are going to do any efficient work over any considerable length of time in any direction. To make an assessment upon the colleges and universities in the Association—to make that assessment uniform, is a burden upon the smaller institutions and will cut them out more and more. To attempt to make the assessment upon the basis of the freshman classes is really impossible and most absurd. In my opinion, we ought to hold on to the present fee.

PRESIDENT DRAPER:

I move that the whole matter be laid on the table. The purpose of that motion is to relegate the whole subject to the ordinary revenues of the Association—make it an ordinary Association matter. I think it is so small that the ordinary revenues can take care of it easily.

President Draper's motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

PROFESSOR HOLGATE, of Northwestern University:

Now, Mr. Chairman, I would like to inquire from what fund this $100 will be paid. Under what regulation? On page 5 of the report that was adopted last year, the expenses of the Commission are to be paid in a regular order. Have those expenses been paid in any other way?

THE PRESIDENT:

The bill for printing the Proceedings of the Association has been paid. The bill for printing the blanks is before the Commission.

President Draper then gave notice of an amendment to the constitution, increasing the annual dues of institutions which are members of the Association, to be acted upon next year.

Professor Holgate moved that until the next annual meeting the President of the Association be authorized to approve bills contracted by the Commission, and that these bills be paid as a part of the regular expenses of the Association. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned to meet at Kent Theater at 8 p. m.

THIRD SESSION, FRIDAY EVENING.

The Association met at Kent Theater, University of Chicago, to listen to an address by President Jordan.

AMERICAN UNIVERSITY TENDENCIES.

BY PRESIDENT DAVID STARR JORDAN, LELAND STANFORD UNIVERSITY.

(Abstract of Address.)

The business of the university is to train men to know, to think and to do. To be will take care of itself, if the others are provided for. Wisdom is knowing what one ought to do next. Skill is knowing how to do it. Virtue is doing it. Religion is the working theory of life. It deals with the reasons why one ought to do. To all these ends the university is devoted. It does not make men. It remodels them to bring the powers they have to greater effectiveness. It brings, according to Emerson—"every ray of varied genius to its hospitable halls," that by their united influence "they may strike the heart of the youth in flame."

Most precious of all possessions of the State is the talent of its citizens. This exists not in fact, but in possibilitity. What heredity carries over is not achievement, but tendency, a mode of direction of force which makes achievement possible. But to bring about results training is necessary. There can never be too many educated men if by education we mean training along the lines of possible individual success. With birth, Emerson tells us, "The gate of gifts is closed." We can no longer secure

something for nothing. The child's character is a mosaic of unrelated fragments, bits of heredity from a hundred sources. It is the work of education to form these into a picture. It is the art of living to range these fragments to form a consistent and effective personality.

It is the duty of the university among other things to take hold of these fragments of human possibilities and to arrange them so as to fit them for achievement. It is another duty to bring men to their inheritance, a phrase I think first used by Matthew Arnold. This inheritance consists of the gathered experience of the past, that truth which is won through contact with realities, and with this the knowledge of the methods by which men have tested truth. Again the university has the public duty of preparing the instruments of social need.

The kings have recognized the need of universities and university men. In this need Alfred founded Oxford and Charlemagne the University of Paris. The Emperor William is quoted as saying that "Bismarck and Von Moltke were but tools in the hands of my august grandfather." To furnish more such tools and in all the range of human activity, the University of Berlin was established.

In like manner the great historical churches and their lesser branches have founded universities on their degree, because of the churches' need of men. It demanded trustworthy agents, expert dialecticians, great persuaders and spiritual leaders, and these have arisen in the church universities in obedience to the demand.

A like need of leaders is felt in democracy. It has a work to do greater than that of king or church and this work must be done by skillful and loyal hands. Democracy means opportunity. The greatest discovery of this most democractic twentieth century will be that "The straight line is the shortest distance between two points." This is a geometric definition of democracy. It trusts not

to Lord this and the Earl of that. Its leaders are not chosen arbitrarily as the earliest offshoot from each herd of the strain of heredity. When it has a man's work to do, it calls on the man who can do it. Such men it creates, and wherever they spring up they are developed in the sunshine of popular education. Democracy does not mean equality, a dead level of possession, happiness or achievement. It means equality before the law, that is the abolition of artificial distinctions made in the dark ages. It means equality of start, never equality of finish, and the most absolute equality of start makes the final equality the greater. As democracies need universities, so do universities need democracy as a means of recall to duty. Lincoln used to say that "bath of the people" was necessary now and then for public men. This "bath of the people" the university needs when it substitutes pedantry for wisdom, or when it becomes a place for basking instead of an agency for training.

An Oxford man said not long since; "Our men are not scholars; our scholars are not men." Those we call scholars are bloodless pedants, finical and ineffective. Those we call men, strong, forceful, joyous, British boys, have no mental training. Whether this be true of Oxford, it is often true in all universities. It is the sign that there is something wrong in practice or ideals. Scholarship should be life, and life should be guided by wisdom. The university should be a source of power, not an instrument in social advancement. Its degree should be not a badge of having done the proper thing, a device to secure the "well-dressed feeling," given also by Boston gaiters and faultless ties. The degree is an incident, a childish toy, so far as the real function of building up men is concerned. Prizes, honors, badges and degrees,—all these matters have no leading place in the machinery of higher education. If our universities had grown in response to the needs of the people, not in imitation of

the colleges of England, we should never have been vexed by these things, and never have felt any need of them.

The American college was built strictly on English models. Its purpose was to breed clergymen and gentlemen, and to fix on these its badge of personal culture, raising them above the common mass of men.

Till within the last thirty years the traditions of the English Tripos held undisputed sway. We need not go into details over the long years in which Latin, Greek and mathematics with a dash of outworn philosophy constituted higher education in America. The value of the classical course lay largely in its continuity. Whoever was led to know Greek, the perfect language and the noble literature, gained something with which he would never willingly part. Even the weariness of Latin grammar and the intricacies of half understood calculus have their value in the comraderie of common suffering and common hope. The weakness of the classical course lay in its lack of relation to life. It had more charms for pedants than for men, and the men of science and the men of action turned away hungry from it.

The growth of the American university came on by degrees, different steps, some broadening, some weakening, by which the tyranny of the Tripos was broken, and the democracy of studies established with the democracy of men.

It was something over thirty years ago when Herbert Spencer asked this great question: "What knowledge is of most worth?" To the schoolmen of England this came as a great shock, as it had never occurred to most of them that any knowledge had any value at all. Its function was to produce culture, which, in turn, gave social position. That there were positive values and relative values was new in their philosophy. Spencer went on to show that those subjects had most value which most strengthened and enriched life, first, those needful to the person,

then those of value in professional training, then in the rearing of the family, the duty as a citizen, and finally those fitting for aesthetic enjoyment. For all of these, except the last, the English universities made no preparation, and for all these purposes Spencer found the highest values in science, the accumulated, tested, arranged results of human experience. Spencer's essay assumed that some one course of study could be devised,—the best for every man,—itself one of the greatest fallacies in education. He took little account of the teacher, perhaps assuming with some other English writers that all teachers were equally poor.

It has been left for American experimenters to insist on democracy of the intellect. The best subjects for any man are those best fitted for his own individual development to make the most of him. Democracy of intellect does not mean equality of brains, still less indifference in regard to them. It means fair play in the schedule of studies. It means fit courses of study, not traditional ones, tailor-made curricula instead of the hand-me-down article.

In the time of James II, Richard Rumbold never could believe that "God had created a few men already booted and spurred, with millions already saddled and bridled for these few to ride." In like fashion, Andrew Dickson White could never believe that God had created a taste for the niceties of grammar or even the appreciation of noble literature, these few tastes to be met and trained while the vast body of other talents were to be left unaided and untouched, because of traditional inferiority. In unison with President White, Ezra Cornell declared that he "would found an institution where any person could find instruction in any study." In like spirit the Morrill Act was framed, bringing together all rays of various genius, the engineer, and the farmer, the student of literature and the student of exact science, all to

do their work in the spirit of equality before the law, and under mutual association each gains. The literary student gains in seriousness and power, the engineer in refinement and appreciation. Like in character is the argument for co-education, a condition encouraged by this same Morrill Act. The men become more refined, the women more earnest, the men more manly, the women more womanly, through influences which abolish rowdyism and giggling.

In the same line we must count the influence of Mark Tappan, perhaps the first to conceive of a state university, existing solely for the good of the state, to do the work the state most needs. Agassiz also showed that advanced work is better than elementary, for its better disciplinary quality. Agassiz insisted that Harvard in his day was only "a respectable high school, where they taught the dregs of education,"—thorough training in some one line he declared was the backbone of education. It was the base line by which the real student was enabled to measure scholarship in others.

In most of our colleges the attempt to widen the course of study by introducing desirable things, preceded the discovery that no general courses of study were desirable. We have found that all prescribed work is bad work unless it is prescribed by the nature of the subject. The student in electrical engineering takes to mathematics, because he knows that his future success depends on his mastery of it. In the same fashion, the student in medicine is willing to accept chemistry. But a year in chemistry, or two years in higher mathematics put in for the broadening of the mind, or because the faculty decrees it, has no broadening effect. Work arbitrarily prescribed is always bad work, sets low standards, and works demoralization instead of training. There cannot be a greater educational farce than the required year of science in certain literary courses. The student picks out the easiest science, the easiest teacher, and the easist way to avoid work, and the whole thing is a source of moral evil.

The traditional courses were first broken up by the addition of short courses in one thing or another, patchwork courses without point, or continuity, courses naturally regarded as inferior, and very properly crowned with the degree of B. S.—Bachelor of Surfaces.

The work required in the nature of things is taken seriously. Serious work sets the pace, exalts the teacher, inspires the man. The individual man is important enough to justify making a course for him.

Through the movement towards the democracy of studies and constructive individualism, a new ideal is being reached in American universities, that of personal effectiveness. The ideal in England has always been that of personal culture, that of France, the achieving, through competitive examinations, of ready-made careers, that of Germany, thoroughness of knowledge, that of America, the power to deal with men and conditions. Everywhere we find abundant evidence of personal effectiveness of American scholars. Not abstract thought, nor a life-long investigation of minute data, not separation from men of lower fortune, but the power to bring about results is the characteristic of the American scholar.

From this point of view the progress of the American university is most satisfactory, and most encouraging. The large tendencies are moving in the right direction. What shall we say of the smaller ones?

At a recent meeting you listened to an eloquent and thoughtful address on the "Peril of the Small College." It has been the guardian of higher education in the past. It is most helpful in the present and we cannot afford to let it die. We understand that the large college becomes the university. Because it is rich, it attempts advanced work and work in many lines. It takes its opportunity, and an opportunity which the small college cannot grasp. Advanced work costs money. A wide range of subjects, taught with men, libraries and laboratories, is a costly matter, but by a variety of supply

the demand is formed. The large college has many students, because it offers many opportunities.

Because large opportunities bring influence and students and gifts, there is a tendency to exaggerate them. We are all prone to pretend that the facilities we offer are greater than is really the case. We are led to shout, because people are indifferent to us.

Right here rises a peril to all colleges, the peril of advertising. All boasting is self-cheapening. The peril of the small college is that it shall cease to be sound. The small college can do good elementary work in several lines. It can do good advanced work in a very few. If it keeps its perspective, if it does only what it can do well, and does not pretend that bad work is good work, or that the work beyond its reach is not worth doing, it is in no danger. The small college must become either a junior college or high-grade preparatory school, sending its men elsewhere for the flower of their college education, or else it must become a small university running narrowly on a few lines, but attending to these with devotion and persistence. For the first possibility the small college has a great advantage. It can come close to its students, it can know its men by name. The value of the teacher decreases with the square of his distance from the pupil. The work of the freshman and sophomore years in many of our great colleges is grotesquely shabby. In none is it done with that care its inportance deserves.

The great college can draw the best teachers away from the small colleges. In this regard the great college has an immense advantage. It has the best teachers, beyond any sort of question. But in most cases the lower class man never finds that out. There is no worse teaching done under the sun than in the lower classes of some of our most famous colleges. Cheap tutors, unpracticed and unpaid boys are set to lecture to classes far beyond their power to interest. We are saving our money for

original research, careless of the fact that we fail to give the elementary training which makes research possible. Too often, indeed, research itself, the noblest of all university functions, is made an advertising fad. The demands of the university press have swollen the literature of science, but they have proved a doubtful aid to its quality. Get something ready. Send it out. Show that we are doing something. All this never advanced science. It is through men born to research, trained to research, choicest product of nature and art, that science advances.

Another effect of the advertising spirit is the cheapening of salaries. The smaller the salaries, the more departments we can support. I noticed the other day at Stanford, that the bricklayers, after a successful strike, had the same salary on the average, as the professors. Where this lasts long, we have the kind of professors we pay for, men of the acumen and training mete for bricklayers. It is something much like advertising that causes universities to tolerate the athlete who is a scholar for athletics' sake. I believe in athletics. I believe in strenuous life, I know that the color of life is red, but I feel humiliated that universities and university men rejoice in degrading victories. If an institution makes one rule for the ordinary student and another for the athlete it is party to a fraud. Without some such concession, half the football teams of the Northwest could not exist. I would rather see football disappear and the athlete fields closed for ten years for fumigation than to see our colleges helpless in the hands of athletic professionalism.

This is a minor matter in one sense, but it is pregnant with large dangers. Whatever the scholar does should be clean. What has the support of boards of scholars should be noble, helpful and inspiring. Anything to win, is a motto we have no moral right to see flaunted in our names.

There is something wrong in our educational practice

when a wealthy idler is allowed to remain on the sole condition that he and his grooms shall pass occasional examinations. There is no justification for the granting of degrees on cheap terms, to be used in social decoration. It is said that Nolan, the chief of the great coaching trust in one of our great universities, earns a salary greater than any college president. His function is to take the man who has done no honest work, and by ingenious coaching to enable him to write a paper as good as that of a real student. The examinations thus passed are mere shams, and by the tolerance of the system the teaching force becomes responsible for it. No educational reform of the day is more important than the revival of honesty in examinations, such a revival of honest meaning as shall make coaching trusts impossible.

The besetting sin of the Western institutions is that of student rowdyism. This evil, like the preceding, is one readily overcome. With high standards of work, set not at long intervals by examinations but by the daily vigilance and devotion of the body of teachers, all these classes of mock students disappear.

The football tramp vanishes before the work-test. The wealthy boy takes his proper place when honest, democratic brain effort is required of him. If he is not a student, he will no longer pretend to be one. The rowdy, the mucker, the hair-cutting, skunk-throwing, cane-rushing imbecile of the West is rarely a bright fellow. The scholarship brings him to terms. If we insist that our colleges shall not pretend to educate those unable or unwilling to do the university work, we shall have no trouble with our discipline.

Above all, in the West, where for the most part, education is free, we should insist that the student should do his part, and that the degree of the university should not be the seal of approbation of four years of idleness, rowdyism, profligacy or dissipation.

FOURTH SESSION, SATURDAY MORNING.

The Association was called to order by President Carman at 10:00 a. m. in the Chapel of Cobb Hall, University of Chicago.

Professor Scott, of the Executive Committee, reported that the Committee recommended for individual membership the following; and they were, on motion, elected to individual membership.

W. W. Boyd, High School Visitor, Ohio State University; J. F. Brown, High School Inspector, Iowa State University; H. A. Hollister, High School Inspector, University of Illinois; A. S. Whitney, High School Inspector, University of Michigan; A. W. Tressler, High School Inspector, University of Wisconsin; Professor Delos Fall, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing, Mich.; Joseph V. Denney, Dean of the College of Arts, Philosophy and Science, Ohio State University, Columbus; President R. E. Hieronymus, Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.; Ben Blewett, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.

The President appointed members of the Commission on Accredited Schools, for the following year. (See appendix for full list of members of the Commission.)

The report of the Committee on Athletics was presented by Principal E. L. Harris, Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS.

I. PREAMBLE.

WHEREAS, The manner in which the financial management of athletics of many schools is carried on tends to demoralization; and, whereas, often the spirit of winning at all hazards, in contests with other schools, is stronger than the true sportsmanlike spirit, whereby athletics, in place of being a moral help to higher ideals, is an influence in the direct opposite, the lowering of ideals, your Committee recommends the following general plan for institutional members of this Association:

II. ORGANIZATION.

That there be organized in each school an athletic association with an executive committee that shall have entire charge of all athletics of the school. At least two members of this committee shall be members of the faculty of the school. This committee (1) shall be responsible for all receipts and all expenditures of money, and shall cause their accounts to be audited twice each year; (2) shall pass upon and ratify all contracts and all contests with other institutions before the same are valid; (3) shall be the final judge in all questions in games and contests within its own school.

III. ELIGIBILITY OF CONTESTANTS.

Any person representing a school in any athletic contest whatever with any other school of this Association must (1) be a *bona fide* student of the school which he represents; (2) he must have been such a student at least four weeks before such contest; (3) he must be carrying at least twelve (12) hours regular work upon which he has not previously received credit; (4) he must be main-

taining a passing standard in scholarship in at least the said twelve (12) hours work; (5) in the secondary school he must not be more than twenty-four years of age; (6) he must not have played more than four years in the secondary-school contests; (7) he must be an amateur sportsman; he must never have acted as an instructor in athletics.

IV. CERTIFICATION.

(1) The head of each institution of this Association or a member of the corps of instruction designated by him shall send a list of the representatives of his school in any and every contest, at least one (1) week before the event is to occur, to the chairman of the executive committee of that school and to the manager or captain of the team of the competing school. He shall certify over his signature that every representative is eligible to enter the contest in accordance with the above rules. No assumed names shall be certified to nor allowed in any report of the game. (2) A member of the faculty shall always accompany said representatives to the contests. (3) A failure to carry out the above or any mistake in certification shall be ground for forfeiture of said contest on the part of the institution making such failure. (4) A protest against any contestant to be entertained must be made at least three (3) days before the contest by registered letter or in person to the captain of the opposing team and to the chairman of the executive committee.

V. OTHER INSTITUTIONS NOT MEMBERS OF THIS ASSOCIATION.

It shall be the duty of each institutional member of this Association to require the same regulations from other schools not members of the Association before any contest takes place with said school.

VI. SENATE AND COURT OF APPEALS.

The committee also recommends that in a city where there are several schools of the same class a senate be formed composed of two (2) members of the faculty of each school represented in interscholastic contests, to which all questions or disputes not otherwise settled shall be referred for settlement: that there be a standing committee of six (6) appointed by this Association, which shall comprise a court of appeals to which questions and disputes of institutional members of this Association in reference to athletic contests may be appealed. The judgment of this court shall be final.

Although not strictly within the province of the committee, it wishes to add another recommendation. In order that more attention may be given to the great body of students who are not athletes, especially in our secondary schools, we recommend that in every school where there is a gymnasium and regular work of at least two (2) hours per week is assigned to pupils a credit of one-fourth (¼) unit per year, *i. e.,* one unit for the four years, be given toward graduation, even if one more unit be added to the amount required for graduation.

EDWARD L. HARRIS.
C. A. WALDO.
J. E. ARMSTRONG.

On motion the report was adopted.

Then followed a Symposium on the Control of Athletics. This was opened by the following paper:

THE SECONDARY SITUATION: ACCOUNTABILITY AND PUBLICITY IN THE MANAGEMENT OF ATHLETICS, AND IN THE HANDLING OF FUNDS.

BY MR. HARRY KEELER, ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL.

To-day it is acknowledged that athletics, developing certain sterling qualities in intellectual, moral, and physical advancement, have a definite place in the curricula of educational institutions. The process by which they have gained this deserved position has been a slow one, resembling the evolution and development of the organic world before the guiding intelligence of man gave it the speed and the strength of his artificial selection. The organic world of athletics, fostered and nurtured by the instinct of play in man, and directed by its own natural selection, confronted schoolmen from earliest times in its roughest and crudest forms. Here and there a Darwin appeared, recognizing this wonderful force for good, to suggest tactfully and to apply (frequently without solicitation) such suggestions as to advance it to a higher plane for the participants and the community. Six years ago the need for faculty regulation and control of athletics in the large public-school system of Chicago was organized, and resulted in the organization of a board of control composed of one teacher from each school in the league. Similiar bodies are to be found throughout the entire country. The work of the Chicago board, I think, is typical of all of them. Here, rules governing the eligibility of players, the adjudication of protests, and the awarding of pennants were some of the chief labors of the members. To reduce the great number of protests which annoyingly arose, non-interested officials, appointed and paid by the board, must be selected by the contending teams. Recently the participants have been obliged to present cer-

tificates of sound physical condition from a physician, and also one giving parents' consent to partake in any athletic contest.

Few will contend that, under such regulation and guidance, supervised by the teaching force, the condition of athletics in the schools has not advanced for the improvement of all concerned. Those students who cannot reach these high standards, those who cannot adjust themselves to the new conditions, must submit to the inevitable and allow those better fitted to take their places.

Such is a very brief statement of the evolution of athletics in which the player has been the peg upon which all rules and regulations have been hung. This is just as it should be, for most of the glaring evils radiated from the abuses which the "flunkers," the "ringers," and the partisan officials selected by the teams from the ranks of students or alumni naturally produced, a cure for which has been found in the careful, systematic, and sympathetic supervision of faculty boards of control.

As each immediate and important problem of this great question is attacked and solved in a satisfactory manner, others not considered so important heretofore, stand out more prominent and press forward for solution. Now we feel that something must be done to regulate and control the financial responsibilities of our high school managers. Many of these boys, who are elected to their position by the members of the teams, or by the athletic association, not because of any special fitness for the position, and who are untrained in affairs of such an important nature, are often called upon to handle and control sums varying from $300 to $1,000, and sometimes even more. Do we realize what burdens are placed upon the shoulders of these managers? Their longest term of office is seldom over three months, during which period they are obliged to meet expense bills of all sorts—equipment of players, traveling expenses of teams, tickets, advertising,

use of grounds, or halls, police protection, telegraphing, telephoning, postage, etc., and occasionally to report and place in the care of the high school athletic treasurer (who is not infrequently a student) any surplus, if such happens to exist. Even after the season ends and his report is made, it often happens that bills of considerable size have unfortunately been overlooked, and that the much-prized surplus is swept out of existence and a deficit greets the team the ensuing season.

Complaints—sometimes unjust, often well grounded—of the manager's incompetency have arisen on all sides. Teachers who are in entire accord with the growth and development of athletics in the schools, and who realize that for their success and independence there must exist in the treasury ample funds for their maintenance, lose heart if their protests go unheeded; and thus the sport soon lacks the aid of those who must be responsible for the clean, wholesome spirit that should pervade athletics. More serious still are the complaints and criticisms that arise from members of that student body, who often consider the manager's position the reward of being a jolly good fellow, and a position where "graft" is easy and readily escapes detection. Homeward this story rolls, gathering additional facts of truth and fiction, until murmurs of protests of such lax methods arise from the community. Do the high school athletics receive the support and assistance which they should receive from the parents and the friends in the community? And, if not, are these impressions which the student gives of the high school manager responsible to some extent for the apparent lethargy that exists toward the high school?

We can see at once the magnitude of this problem, and, standing in the relationship of leaders and guiders for these young men, we can readily appreciate what a powerful factor it is in their education. There is but one position to take on this question of controlling and regu-

lating, through a member of the faculty, the financial responsibilities of our managers. It cannot be turned aside and ignored, thus allowing them through ignorance, because of a lack of training, or through malfeasance, within or without their ranks, to take those crooked paths and to fall into such pit-holes of bad and evil habits from which return is often slow and doubtful. I cannot agree with those who take the stand that these young men by their own efforts have earned this money, and it is theirs to dispose of as they see fit. Time will not permit of a full argument on this point, but it is manifestly clear that if such a plan is adhered to, we should be casting aside one of the most powerful levers for lifting these young minds to a higher level. With what alarm must we view the condition of our high-school athletics when we realize that in a certain recent athletic contest, held here in the West, managed entirely without the control of the high-school teaching corps, over $1,000 was placed in the pockets of an outside party!

Two other brief instances will serve still further to illustrate the point. The first is an actual case where the entire control of an inter-high-school contest, involving over $400 as gate receipts, was in the hands of student managers. Some slight controversies arose over the selling and receiving of tickets sold at the respective schools, and consequently there was some dispute as to the division of the money. I might also add that inadequate police protection and ground guards were provided, so that many found admission easy and fights plentiful. Some months after the season was over two members of the teaching corps from these schools who were familiar with the status of the athletic funds in their respective schools, met. "By the way," said Mr. A., "how much did you clear in our last football game?" "One hundred and fifty dollars," said B. "One hundred and fifty dollars?" replied A. "Impossible, I know our share was

something less than one hundred dollars." Do you suppose some deserving charity was benefited by the missing fifty dollars?

In another instance negotiations were carried on between a faculty member from one school and a student manager from another. The teacher, through some years of service in this line, suggested long before the game a scheme for the distribution of the tickets in each school that would prevent any confusion in the final accounting, suggested plans for gate management, for guarding and policing the grounds, concerning the nature and the amount of the expense each side should involve, number of complimentary tickets to be issued, and so on; but the student manager could not see the need of extra guards on the grounds, objected to the expense bill, and modestly proposd that each side be allowed one hundred complimentary tickets. No agreement could be reached between the parties on these disputed points until the teacher determined to call the game off and thus end a conference that, to say the least, was belittling to his dignity.

What a contrast is each of the above cases to the transactions between two teachers, arranging an inter-school contest, when all propositions relative to the management of the contest and control of funds are decided justly and impartially within one brief meeting! Tickets are distributed by these teachers among players and students, who readily and correctly account for their sale. Immediately after the contest the teachers, and their aids, usually the student manager, count the tickets, ascertain the gross and net receipts, and report and turn over the same to the principal or high-school treasurer at once.

Some of the beneficial results of such management are:

1. The contest is conducted and managed to the satisfaction of the student bodies and the patrons of the game.

2. The expense is reduced to a minimum.

3. The proceeds are determined readily and publicly reported.

4. No temptations to do wrong are placed in the pathway of the student manager.

At present the financial control of athletics is in a state of chaos, and the time is ripe for some concerted action on the part of all schools interested to arrange and agree upon certain uniform regulations to control it. Whatever details of control may be prescribed in such provisions, certainly there should be a signed statement from principal to principal, or teacher to teacher, showing the entire financial transactions on each side, which statement, or a copy of it, should be either displayed on the bulletin board or published in the school paper, in the daily papers, or some publication agreed upon. There are two questions that are always eagerly asked after the game: first, "What was the score?" second, "How much did you make?" We publish the score on the field; let us publish the score at the gate.

The absence was announced of Principal Wm. F. Geiger, of the East Aurora High School, who was to have followed Mr. Keeler with a paper on the same subject.

Then followed a paper on

REGULATION OF ATHLETICS IN COLLEGES—WHAT NEXT?

BY PROFESSOR C. A. WALDO, PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

About 1890 the intercollegiate football leaven, which had at that time worked pretty thoroughly through the eastern institutions, began noticeably to affect those of the middle West. Suddenly college rivalry became intensely active. In the fall of the year institutions in their entirety

—president, faculty, and all—followed their teams from point to point and shouted themselves hoarse in cheering their champions on to victory. Elation amounting to frenzy went with success, and the depths of despondency followed defeat. The eastern coach quickly made his appearance. With his first advent tricks and questionable practices already tabooed in the East were common in western contests. Coaches directed their teams on the field. Brawn was the surest way to college preferment. Saloon men raised large sums to keep favorites in college; the very woods were searched for huge men of immense physical vigor. Brain did not count; to enter college, intellectual attainment was no longer necessary. Teams were becoming a permanent and paid body of men, and the whole thing was rapidly assuming a gladitorial aspect. Boys quite differently taught at home were rapidly developing an oft-indulged habit of betting their sesterces on the heads of their favorites. With the cries, "Put him out," "Kill him," from the side lines one might expect to see thumbs reversed. College faculties, charged as they are with immense responsibility, were the first to return to sanity. Drastic action on their part stopped the drift toward the grosser forms of professionalism. Those experiences in the early nineties were sufficient to settle the question of strict amateurism for college sports. There are few students of the conditions then existing who are unwilling to stand firmly on the platform: *Amateurism* or *nothing*.

Rightly and of necessity, as I believe, those college faculties which are alive to athletic problems everywhere take as their basis of action in this direction: "College athletics must be amateur."

With that fundamental thought the regulations have been of two kinds: (1) necessary, (2) expedient. The necessary regulations legislate against "ringers" or non-students, against direct or indirect pay for athletic ser-

vices, against the coach, the trainer, or other professional on the field, against playing under an assumed name. The expedient regulations discourage migration for athletic reasons; strive to secure a genuine student representation; strive to put in force such machinery as will make the whole code effective; limit college or university time to four years; put games, grounds, and student officials under faculty control; strive to prevent college attendance simply for athletic reasons. In brief, expedient regulations are designed to make rules against professionalism effective and to place athletics in colleges secondary to intellectual training.

Anyone who will take the pains to read carefully a pamphlet edited for private circulation by Professor Jones, of Minnesota, and containing the proceedings of the Intercollegiate Conference Faculty Representatives since January 11, 1895, will be deeply impressed with the genuineness of the endeavor of the faculties of our leading institutions here in the middle West to make intercollegiate athletics clean, helpful, and ideal. Athletics are not the purpose of college life. They are its incident. Rightly cultivated they help to secure strong bodies for strong minds. They furnish the occasion for self-conquest, high endeavor, loyalty, self-sacrifice and the cultivation and practice of a keen sense of honor. These are the many virtues of the forceful and helpful life—the life of the saving remnant; and for such fruits as these of our athletic systemour faculties are longing and striving. Are these the fruits of eight years of endeavor—three of law-making and five of law interpretation and careful regulation? Do the last five years leave us hopeful for the future? Do they point to the final and complete ascendency of higher things, or what is their lesson?

Without attempting at this moment to answer this query directly, may I be allowed to state some of the alleged facts with which I have come in contact, and from

the consideration of which, if in any degree true, existing condition and tendencies may be inferred? I have no desire to rant and denounce, no desire to classify institutions by calling some sheep and others goats. Specific things may have a local habitation, but that element I would have you forget, and have you consider only the general truths that lie behind them and cause them to be. Tendencies is our inquiry—tendencies after five years under well-known and definite rules, their causes and, where wrong, their cure.

What, then, after these years of effort and enlightenment, are some of the things known or generally believed to be taking place?

Is it true, as was alleged in the papers, that a manager took money from students, and sought further contributions from business men, and actually paid the funds secured to a player to hold him in college for the team?

Is it true that men influence irresponsible college officials to testify to what is false, and thus add another year to their college athletic time?

Is it true that athletic managers engage in an unseemly struggle for prospective students of athletic promise, and use emissaries and questionable propositions to secure them?

Do they ransack the country from Maine to California in search of material?

Are athletes *induced* by the promise of fake business positions, the principal duties of which are drawing of a salary sufficiently large to pay college expenses?

Did the young collegian speak the truth when he said that five of the first eleven in his institution were hired?

Did another student speak the truth when in a burst of confidence he exclaimed: "We pay our men just as the rest of you do, but you can't find it out?"

What about the high-salaried outside coaches? Do

they stand between the athletic management and the man who seeks pay for athletic services? Do they strive to build up winning teams by devoting part of their large salaries to the purchase of men? Do they allow men on their teams who they know have made a practice of playing for money? Do they ever use such billingsgate and the language of the brothel in dealing with their men that they burn out from them forever all decency and self-respect, that they blast their moral characters as with the serpent's breath? Do they ever encourage the men under them to break training with a grand drunken debauch? Who are these professional coaches anyway? Are they usually the full-fledged product and brightest examples of our great eastern institutions? Or are they irresponsible men hired for three months at salaries which make college presidents envious? One says publicly and aggressively to college instructors: "You must give me full control over the time of the team. If its members do not come up to the standard of their work, you must not flunk them." Is he the kind of a man to whom we should intrust our students, those hostages committed to our care, at the most impressionable period of their lives? We should certainly think twice before answering that question in the affirmative.

While we are emphatically asserting our allegiance to amateur ideals, is it nevertheless believed that we are tending in fact toward professionalism? How otherwise can we explain the two following incidents?

In a reputable institution in the middle West, with an honorable history, an endeavor has just been made to combine students, faculty, and trustees to hire a baseball pitcher for the college team.

In another similar institution it is seriously proposed to give athletes their board and room for services, and do such other things as are necessary to attract men who are known or believed to be going to the highest bidder.

Is there any explanation of these athletic sins except one?

These institutions are proposing to do openly and deliberately what they believe others are doing under cover.

My remarks do not apply to the Middle West alone. Those conversant with athletic affairs in this region know of cases of corrupt inducement emanating in some way from some of the great eastern institutions, and believe such cases common.

A professor of national reputation in a great seaboard university recently complained publicly of existing conditions. An undergraduate was allowed to handle $50,000 in a single season, with all that means in the way of temptation to misuse. This same young man alleged his *athletic* activity as a reason why he should be passed in applied mechanics. It is needless to say that the substitute course was not accepted.

Less than 17 per cent of the colleges of the United States expend $50,000 upon their entire annual budget, yet there is one man, an undergraduate, handling that amount while engaged in the serious and exacting life of of a student! No wonder the professor exclaimed: "It is an outrage!"

Another eminent professor, representing another of the great eastern institutions, said: "Athletics is a good thing, but the university sports are not athletics, they are professionalism and nothing else. I do not mean that the men are professionals in the sense that their rules say they are professional. But when you keep men for months and months on a special system of training, and then charge so much to see them perform, it is professionalism pure and simple."

Leaving discussion of the socondary situation to my colleagues let us return to our question: Are college athletic law-givers succeeding in raising sport to a higher

level? Are these results manifest? Are our students stimulated to greater achievement in honesty, self-conquest, loyalty, self-sacrifice? Are their perception and practice of fine manly honor being refined and intensified?

I fear that the opposite is too largely true. I fear that our students are coming more and more to the opinion that all is fair in athletics and war, that rules are for the other fellow, that anything is justifiable which is not found out, and that there is no great disgrace attaching to things found out. Such a state of mind, if it exists and is increasing, will certainly in time choke out moral, religious, and spiritual life from our men. It threatens the very foundations of all instruction, and ultimately of educational institutions themselves, of society and government. Unless my observation is entirely at fault, there is danger, and it is increasing; and I doubt not you have all seen evidence that good men as well as bad among our students wink at the evasion of established rules and sit silent in the presence even of downright chicanery. You may not agree with me in this gloomy view, but though I am by nature an optimist, I will proceed upon the assumption that danger is impending and increasing.

Are we at the end of our resources, or are further remedies available? Our college faculties must be passive or active. They must retire entirely from the field, and leave the students in absolute and undisputed control —a course contrary to the traditions of American institutions of learning and one already abandoned as harmful in the extreme—or they must adopt one of three courses of action: (1) suppression, (2) revolution, (3) further reformation.

Suppression means retreat and confessed failure. To my mind it is justifiable only as a final and necessary measure to root out a disorder that does not respond to milder treatment and has become intolerable and malignant. We are yet, I believe, far from that stage.

Revolution means a radical departure from the usual methods in vogue among schools of all kinds for sustaining athletics. Such revolutionary systems are beginning to appear in the annual contests between the army and navy, when the spectators are all guests of the competing institutions. They are seen to some extent at Culver Military Academy, but are most clearly set forth in the plans recently adopted at Washington University. I trust that Dean C. M. Woodward of that institution will explain this system to us.

But I am not yet ready to say that our legislators have exhausted all possibilities along lines now almost universally followed. I am prepared to advocate further reforms, and believe that many reasonable and untried possibilities in regulation are still open to us here in the middle West.

There should be a programme agreed upon which might require several years to complete, but which would point the way for further effort. The Conference colleges are an example of a group of colleges that are organized to work together; the Ohio Conference is another; and so other groups can easily be found. For every such group I would suggest a programme somewhat as follows:

1. Absolute business publicity.

2. A worthy and permanent record of athletic achievement.

3. One year's residence and reasonable success in studies before a student can become a candidate for an intercollegiate or interscholastic team.

4. Repudiation of all recruiting agents or agencies.

5. Graduate and amateur coaching without pay.

6. A reasonable amount of disarmament.

7. A lower limit than now prevails for a maximum admission fee to witness intercollegiate sports. Dethrone the almightly dollar and return to simplicity.

8. One other source of reform has been recently her-

alded from the University of Iowa; namely, a new, compactly formed, well-guarded intercollegiate athletic society among students who have attained distinction in athletic events, and whose purpose, energetically carried out, shall be to insist upon an amateurism above suspicion and ideals of manhood, honor, and courtesy that will at once and forever eliminate every objectionable feature from our college sports.

By absolute publicity I mean something adequate and permanent; some such cure, in fact, as is proposed for the trust evils of the country. While faculty members may be honest, consciencious, and fearless, they may still be careless. Something is needed to spur them to the utmost vigilance in the discharge of a great duty.

If this should make the labors of athletic committees seem too burdensome to some now in control, they should retire and make way for successors who would be willing to accept the responsibilities of their office, as well as its honors. In my opinion the athletic committee is to-day the most important by far in our colleges. It deals directly with the morals of the student, his rightness or his wrongness under stress in his relation to others. Other committees may prescribe the conditions under which an institution shall bestow its honors for intellectual achievement, but the athletic committee deals directly with the habits of thought and action which make the student a good or bad citizen. There is no body of men connected with our colleges and universities whose doings deeply interest a larger class of people than the faculty and student officers of athletic associations. There are none who owe to the public a more accurate and explicit accounting and record. Elsewhere I have advocated the publication by groups of institutions of an athletic annual. This is a book-making age, yet happy is the man who writes for a large and assured constituency; and such would doubtless be the case with the editors of a well-constructed and

reasonably complete annual. Besides giving the public inside facts, it would tend to emphasize to athletes their correct and reasonable rewards for excellence. In the proportion that the glory of achievement fills the imagination of the ambitious athlete, in that same proportion will money cease to influence his thoughts. The promising young athlete will not be writing to the various directors of athletics and others similarly placed: "If I favor your institution with my presence, what will you do for me in the way of board, room, soft jobs, and other special personal emoluments and privileges?" But he will ask himself: "Where, while securing the intellectual training I desire, can I as a secondary purpose probably achieve for myself the greatest permanent athletic good and distinction?" At the same time he will have powerful influence added to those already existing to keep his record clean.

Most cases to which suspicion and scandal attach would be eliminated by a one-year rule, strictly applied. This means attendance for one year upon an institution of any and every kind, with reasonable success in its curriculum, before a student becomes eligible for an intercollegiate team; and this without exception. Concerning its application to the interscholastic team I cannot speak so definitely. Such a rule would emphasize the primacy of scholarship, would simplify the present code, would almost completely stop the growing scandals attaching to the search for material, while it would scarcely change the present practice with reference to uninfluenced students, namely, the habit of waiting a year for development before putting a new man into hard team work.

A change to amateur and graduate coaching is the reform which would probably at once receive a majority vote from the members of our faculties who have given college athletics intelligent and sympathetic attention. It would bring us close to the English practice in Cambridge

and Oxford—a practice which we might well imitate. There the professional coach in our sense is unused and repudiated. It would tend to the moderation of our present system—now all too strenuous. In fact, it would quickly give us those reforms which Professor Pattengill had in mind when he proposed and advocated disarmament. An unscrupulous coach with an exorbitant salary is a menace to amateurism. What a temptation the system places before such a man to use part of his personal funds to secure mercenary material and build up a winning team whose victories would enhance his own reputation and increase the ability of an association to pay him a still larger salary, which he can in turn use still more in the same irresponsible way! Can you and I be sure that no western coach does these things? I fear, if the secret history of football were written in all its details, some of us would blush at our own inefficiency in protecting our students and our institutions. I trust that the day of the overpaid and imported coach is numbered. There are fine men among them, but the system is bad to the core and must tend constantly to professionalize our teams.

Twenty-nine years ago the professional coach was more or less in evidence among the thirteen college crews that gathered around Saratoga Lake for that greatest summer regatta. Since then he has gradually come more into evidence, until the game of football has recently shown him in his highest development and revealed the dangers and mistakes of the system. Several years ago we legislated the foreign professional coach off the teams. I believe we should now legislate him off the campus.

In his best estate the transient professional coach is apt to be a snare; in his worst he is a noisome pestilence. If you wish to teach young men protectionist doctrines, you do not put them under the instruction of a free-trade professor. If you wish your children to learn patriotism,

you do not put them under the control of a traitor. If you believe that above all things your son should become a humble Christian disciple, you do not choose an atheist for his most intimate friend. Similarly, if you wish to make athletics a means, not an end; if you wish your students to develop and practice a nice sense of honor; if you wish them to engage in sport for sport's sake, to refrain from gambling and other hurtful vices, should you put them under the direction of an irresponsible person whose interests and associations are the opposite? Under such conditions what can you expect? Can you gather figs from thistles?

If the year's residence rule should soon go into effect, there would be no call for the rule on recruiting. With the reverse true, that rule demands unqualified support.

Isn't the matter of admission charges greatly overdone?

I am not prepared to abrogate the gate fee, but certainly we should think twice before allowing our students to engage in sporting exhibitions where the income of a single contest runs into the tens of thousands. Let us encourage them to defend the honor and reputation of their institutions with the best that is in them. That is manhood. But when our principal concern is to get big receipts from their heroic endeavors, it becomes what the eastern professor quoted above characterizes as the essence of professionalism.

I do not believe we are going to purify the entire student body by acting upon them from without. We must set some leaven at work within.

For one I shall watch with interest the new development said to have been inaugurated at Iowa. Under wise direction that may become precisely the influence for which we are looking. When that change of student ideals has reached some such high standard as exists today in English universities, we may then turn this whole

matter over to the students themselves, to the great advantage of all concerned.

In conclusion may I say I am not, and never have been, hostile to athletics. In college days they were my delight; through all my life they have been a source of health, strength, and rejuvenation. May I also say that I have not in this article aimed one word of criticism at any particular institution, professor, or coach. But I would eradicate from our present system all the diseases which the last five years have brought to the surface. Our colleges have ever been and are now the fountains from which flow the saving influences of our nation. Let us keep that fountain clean from athletic and all other forms of contamination.

The following paper was then presented:

THE NEW DEPARTURE, OR REVOLUTION IN METHODS.

BY DEAN C. M. WOODWARD, WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY.

I assume without argument the value, necessity, and propriety of general physical training and of athletic sports, among students of both secondary and higher grades. I admit without hesitation that we fail badly in our management; on the one hand doing too little, on the other hand doing, or allowing our students to do, too much. The middle course in this case, as will be seen, is a "golden mean."

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted at a recent meeting of representatives of the Missouri College Union:

1. *Resolved,* That it is desirable that all students should take systematic physical training during the entire

period of their academic career. It is our understanding that all athletics come under the general head of physical training.

2. *Resolved,* That it is the conviction of this conference that all college athletics should be under the control and supervision of the college faculty. That the faculty authorities, responsible for the standard maintained in athletics, should instruct the general student body, as well as candidates for teams, in the principles of good sportsmanship and manly conduct in their athletic activity, and that penalties be imposed upon players who in any way resort to unfair tactics in a contest, or make themselves obnoxious while connected with the team.

3. *Resolved,* That in every college community the public opinion should be fostered which shall be absolutely fair and courteous to visiting teams, which shall be prompt to recognize and applaud good play and acts of chivalry on either side, and which never drops below the plane of considerate and gentlemanly conduct.

4. *Resolved,* That the authorities of each college discountenance betting in connection with athletic events and endeavor to build up a public sentiment against this baneful evil.

5. *Resolved,* That inasmuch as the eminent purpose of college athletics is the physical training and development of the student corps, the students we have should be our first care, and hence the practice of recruiting athletic material from other institutions of the same grade, or of a lower grade, by presenting special inducements in the way of athletic, social, or financial opportunity, is unfair, unsportsmanlike, and unworthy of an educational institution.

6. *Resolved,* That since the employment of profes-

sional coaches has a corrupting influence on college athletics, a sentiment be created in the educational institutions of this state that will bring about the entire abandonment of the system of professional coaching. In this connection we recommend the regular employment by each institution of a competent instructor of physical training.

7. *Resolved,* That a long train of evils seems to be inseparably connected with the feature of gate receipts, a feature rendered necessary by the inadequate provision for the support of a physical department. This inadequacy we regret, and its evils we deplore. It is our judgment that the ideal condition toward which we should all aim is an endowed department, with a financial management in the hands of college officers; that all public entertainments in which our students take part should be free and complimentary; that expenses should be rigidly kept within incomes, and that extravagance in any direction should be carefully avoided. The number of intercollegiate contests should be limited and their character determined by the highest interests of the student body, and visiting teams should always be entertained as guests. In short, the physical department should be provided and administered by the college authorities in the same way as is the department of science, engineering, or literature.

My thesis is the seventh resolution, relating to endowed departments of physical training, and the entire abolition of the feature of "gate receipts" from all student athletics. The substance of that resolution I incorporated into an address on "Manly Sports" in St. Louis in March, 1902, and again in a paper read before the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education at Pittsburg, Pa., in June of last year.

The train of evils connected with the feature of gate

receipts is manifest to every close observer. Intercollegiate athletic contests, like other intercollegiate matches (debates, orations, chess, tennis, etc.), seem to be necessary to the maintenance of a lively and healthy interest in athletics as manly sports. Even under good management they cost considerable money. They cannot be had without money. The participants generally cannot afford to meet the expense; the non-participating students do not feel that the burden should fall on them. There is usually no money in the college treasury for such contests. The only course open is that adopted by the managers of professionanl baseball, professional boxing, prize-fighting, horse-racing, etc., viz., make the event as spectacular and exciting as possible, and invite the public to attend and pay the bills. This solution of the problem is purely American and of recent origin, and it has brought about an air of professionalism which has decidedly lowered the moral tone of college athletics. Here the train of evils at once began its course. As soon as the managers found that they could get the public to pay the expenses, they set out to induce them to pay roundly, and to come in crowds. The drawing cards for a public exhibition were individual players of rare strength and skill, and a team reputation for great prowess and strategy. To secure these attractions, no labor, no money, must be spared. A thousand dollars spent on the team will come back fourfold at the gate. Now enter the professional coaches, the hired trainers, and the volunteer recruiting officers. Athletics ceases to be manly sport and healthy fun; it is desperate business and hard drudgery with the fun squeezed out of it. The average, growing, developing student, in whose interest athletics were originally organized and maintained, is neglected, and the country is scoured far and wide for superior athletic material to make up a team that is reasonably sure to win and so draw a paying crowd.

See how corruption creeps in at every joint. The ideal man, who excells in both brain and brawn, *may* be on the team, but the chances are many to one that he is not. As a rule the recruited material makes up the team, and we all know what that material generally is. It is not sought, nor does it come, for the high ends for which a college is established and fostered. This recruited material may get some benefit from the incidental work of the course, such as mathematics, science, and literature, but the evident tendency on the part of college athletes to turn out professional sports is something to be deplored.

Next note the evils inevitably connected with coaching. Next year's salary of your coach depends chiefly on the record of his team this year. They must win or he loses. What can you expect? Are you surprised if he says privately to his men: "Put so-and-so out of the game as soon as you can, even at the risk of being disqualified yourselves; we have no other way to win, and win we must." You have all read Professor Hollis's protest against the gradual disappearance of chivalrous conduct on the football field. President Eliot, without explaning why, says that the ethics of the game of football "do not improve. The martial axiom—attack the enemy's weakest point—inevitably leads to the deliberate onslaught on the cripple and the convalescent in the opposing lines; and the habitual violation of rules, if penalties be escaped, is regarded by many as merely amusing." Brutal acts of violence, like stabs in the dark, may miss detection, but they lower the moral natures of the players and corrupt the entire atmosphere of the game. I agree with Professor Hollis that it were better to abandon football than to maintain it at a loss of our high ideals of fair play and gentlemanly conduct. If honor is lost, all is lost—whatever may be the score.

In my judgment the professional coach, who sells his

services for ten weeks at a price proportional to his ability to show a green set of young giants how to win games, must be eliminated. His place must be taken by volunteer upper-class men and regular instructors, who are not interested in gate receipts, and who are willing to do the best they can with home material, provided only that the visiting teams with which they play do the same. High-minded, incorruptible coaches may exist; I hope they do; but I fear it would take Diogenes with his lantern to find them.

Betting is so common among sporting men that it seems to be a logical feature even in the cases which have only a semi-professional air, like intercollegiate games. The betting habit, like all kinds of gambling, is to be condemned everywhere, especially among young men. I think it can be shown that this habit is fostered by the practice of recruiting, which aims to secure an unfair and an unknown advantage over a rival team. In its turn the laying of wagers corrupts and demoralizes players. Some rules forbid betting on the part of players; but if the player does not bet, his friends do, and the strain on his sense of honor is so great that he cannot resist the temptation to do mean and unlawful things, for the purpose of winning. Some boys learn to bet at their fathers' knees; others learn by listening to the talk of sporting men at games and races and loafing-places; so that doubtless there would be some betting among college students even if there were no secretly enlisted athletes, no coaches intent upon victory at any cost; but I am morally certain that were there no gate receipts, there would be much less betting and no harmful excitement before and after an athletic meet.

I need not dwell upon the evils of mutual suspicion and distrust. This feeling springs indigenously in the breasts of dishonest and dishonorable people, and is fatal to fellowship and true sportsmanship. This evil can be

traced in large part to the professional tone brought in by the coaches, who are themselves introduced to make a drawing team, which in turn is necessary to a large income in the shape of gate receipts. Professor Hollis says that the Harvard-Yale game of football seems to arouse the worst impulses of the students. "Suspicions are rife, bets are on, and studies are practically suspended during the entire week preceding the game." This excitement is not due to the fact that the players feel that they must play, and play their best; for not more than one man in several hundred expects to play; but it is chiefly due to wagers and bets of all kinds and shapes. The punishment meted out inexorably upon a man who "breaks training" is not on account of the injury and harm he does to himself, but because he imperils the chances of the team, endangers the risks taken by his friends, and jeopardizes the reputation of his trainer, his coach, and his physical director. I do not object to the punishment, but I do object to a wrong interpretation of it, viz., that it shows a remarkably high standard of physical temperance and manly purity. In plain truth it shows no such thing. The same motley crowd that stands ready to nearly lynch a man for "breaking training" would stand equally ready to punish him for not putting an opponent out of play, should he have a safe chance for doing so.

The demoralization caused by the gate-money feature does not stop with students and coaches; it extends to athletic committees of the faculty and to advisory boards. The necessity of getting money to pay bills stares them continually in the face and forces them to do a hundred things they would rather not do, and which they would not do if the department of physical training had an assured income sufficient for their reasonable demands. The temptation to deal gently with the shortcomings of players is irresistible, and the responsibility for the pay-

ment of bills is heavy. I know whereof I speak, for I am serving my third year as chairman of an advisory board. I am already a confirmed beggar, and I am continually scheming to increase "gate receipts." My position is a very painful one, considering my convictions. The people of St. Louis are beginning to think my interest in engineering and manual training was only a "passing fancy," and that my ruling passion is, after all, athletics. Some of you may fare worse than I do. Beggary is not the worst that can be charged, but to be counted as a pedagogical sport is pretty bad.

President Eliot evidently regards the large amount of gate receipts as an evil. He says, "Expenditures for football are steadily increasing;" and we all know the tendency of ill-gotten moneys to go extravagantly.

I have thus endeavored to connect more or less directly the serious evils of intercollegiate athletics with the feature of gate receipts. To show this connection still more clearly, consider how different things would be if, through an adequate endowment, the department of physical training were to receive a definite income which could be increased only by student membership fees. Let it be understood that all games for gate receipts would be strictly forbidden; that, in the place of coaches and trainers, the physical director would be given a proper corps of assistants on regular salaries. Is it not evident without further argument that the motives which have been so active in the work of demoralization would be largely wanting? No increase in the number of spectators to a game could add to the income. No refusal to do mean or ungenerous things would put the salary of a permanent teacher in jeopardy. The chief source of temptation to break rules, to steal players, and to work in "ringers" would be lacking, and teams would meet as friends with mutual respect. The existing tendency to exaggeration would be checked, and in the hands of dis-

creet managers the annual allowance would be devoted to the rational, healthy development of the whole student corps.

The attitude of boards of overseers, regents, and directors of colleges and universities toward athletics is anomalous and illogical in the extreme. Lest I give offense, let me refer only to my own university. I dare to claim that Washington University is fortunate above them all in its board of directors, and if I point out a failure to be entirely logical in the treatment of the subject before us, you must hasten to the conclusion that they who have done so much and so admirably on other lines will be among the first to see to the establishment of a new regime in athletics, if we succeed in demonstrating its logical and educational necessity.

Here is the present status: We have erected a large and well-appointed gymnasium costing $150,000. Immediately adjoining is a superb athletic field, whose site, construction, and seating cost not less than $100,000. The fact that the International Fair of 1904 will use this field explains in part its magnificent appointments, but not its poor logic, which is easily shown. Football, baseball, and field and track athletics are all provided for as far as grounds and bathing and dressing-rooms are concerned, thus implying full recognition of the importance and propriety of an athletic department in the university; yet thus far the board of directors has not been able to secure one dollar toward an endowment of this department. We have a magnificent laboratory, but as yet no adequate provision for its maintenance and use. A parallel proceeding would be for a college to provide a magnificent library with books in many tongues, but with never a librarian nor a professor of language and literature.

My contention is that if athletics are to be allowed to exist at all as a feature of college life, physical training,

including a fair proportion of domestic and intercollegiate athletics, should be incorporated into the curriculum. If athletics are not worthy of such recognition, they are not worthy of athletic fields and athletic club houses. If intercollegiate contests are not worthy of financial support and effective supervision, they ought not to be allowed, and it is the height of inconsistency to adopt eligibility rules which have no bearing except in the case of intercollegiate contests.

Under student management athletics have run riot in some institutions, and into serious exaggerations in many. In secondary schools the exaggerations are becoming intolerable. Sporting men and sporting methods are having a bad influence among boys, depreciating intellectual pursuits and degrading morals. I believe that athletics can be restrained within bounds and kept wholesome and altogether desirable, but active physical training must be required and made universal; intercollegiate games and field meets must be limited in number and improved in character; and all necessary funds must come from the college chest and be accounted for as rigidly as are the expenses of a department of engineering or a museum of art.

Enduring fame shall be the fortune of that institution which shall first adopt these suggestions and live up to the spirit of our resolutions. It must adequately endow its physical department, do away with the feature of gate receipts, eliminate the professional coach, and maintain pleasurable athletics among all its students. I propose to do my best in St. Louis to secure an endowment of a department of physical training in Washington University. We want a professor and director of physical training whose salary shall be paid out of the university chest, and an endowment of at least $100,000, the income of which shall pay for the services of regular assistants, and meet the expenses of a few intercollegiate

complimentary games or meets each year. Who will join us in this noble enterprise and set the pace for a sweeping reform in the status and character of athletics in the universities of the United States?

The following paper was then presented:

REGULATION IN MISSOURI AND ADJACENT TERRITORY.

BY PHYSICAL DIRECTOR C. W. HETHERINGTON, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The problem of athletic control in Missouri is the same for each college in the South or Southwest. In fact, it is the same for any college where social influences in the environment, the sentiments, general training, energy, stability, and financial status of the student body make it difficult to maintain highly developed teams, and where, further, the example and methods of great influential neighboring colleges give standards for achievement which cannot normally be maintained. Given these conditions dominating the development of athletics in any college, their regulation is always difficult.

My paper might well be called, "What I have learned concerning the regulation of athletics from my experience in Missouri," for inasmuch as Missouri has been the center of the most recent struggle for high standards in athletics, intimately associated with all the colleges of the Southwest in that struggle, and overshadowed by the influences of the larger colleges to the north, it has been a vantage-point from which to study present-day tendencies in college athletics. Having gone to Missouri with some knowledge of athletic conditions on the Pacific coast and in New England, I have come to feel that there are fac-

tors which are everywhere constant in their corrupting influence on athletics, and that these factors should receive our earnest attention in all efforts toward athletic regulation. I believe that they give the key to the present situation in athletics. They suggest new lines of attack for the regulation and control of athletics. Therefore it is of these factors that I first wish to speak.

1. First among the factors that are constant in their tendencies toward corruption is scholastic provincialism. This term does not refer to the local pride that makes for college spirit, but to the crude, unintelligent prejudices against rival colleges. It leads to bad feeling, distrust, hate, and combativeness in place of good fellowship, courtesy, and a manly rivalry. Provincialism is found not alone in those colleges where students are drawn largely from western rural districts, but in the old tradition-bound colleges of the East as well. In fact, it is not uncommon among members of our college faculties. It is a universal product of a narrow social experience, undisciplined emotions, and a cramped intellect. The rabid partisan fails to note that, had he matriculated in a rural college, the "black sheep" of his fancy would all have been "white," and the lambs he thinks so white would all have been black. This provincialism is a drag on every phase of college life, but it is chiefly dangerous to athletics because it lends itself to bad influences, unsportsmanlike suggestions, and the sway of mob mind.

2. Second among the factors that are constant in their tendencies toward corruption is an unhealthy craving to win. A craving to win is not only a natural and legitimate feeling, but it underlies many of the most pleasurable and stimulating emotions aroused by athletics. It becomes unwholesome or dangerous when exaggerated to unreasonable proportions, either through a contagion of local pride or through the unhealthy interest and influence of the sporty and betting element

which, swayed by the crudest of passions, feels nothing, knows nothing, and cares nothing for educational aims or sportsmanlike standards. This is the element that forced faculty control. Athletics are to them a gambling device. Their ideals are focused in one aim—*win*. Their interests and influence are a constant menace to honorable athletic standards. So long as college authorities allow characters that are a disgrace to the institution the privileges of the college, so long will there be an unscrupulous element debauching one of the fundamental instincts which create and develop athletic contests. A healthy, over-ardent craving to win is subject to educational influences; the unhealthy will yield only to harsh discipline.

3. Another factor that tends toward corruption is the competitive spirit. Normal competition is eagerly sought and enjoyed by athletes, but the craving tends to overleap itself and produce an exaggerated athleticism. It produces an accumulation of big intercollegiate games. There follows a profound concentration of effort, enormous labor, and great absorption of time. Everything becomes exaggerated. Surfeited athletes are worked up to a realization of their responsibilities; the honor of the college, its standing before the world, the number of students, all depend upon their efforts! Under the strain powerful men only can survive. A premium is placed on such men. It leads to an exaggerated hero-worship of the powerful expert athlete, and a contempt for the undeveloped boy with latent athletic powers. The athlete himself gains an exaggerated notion of his value and importance. He comes to expect favors, and thinks he is abused if he does not get them. No one honors the athlete more than I, but he should be honored within his own domain and with some sense of proportion. Athletic skill is no guarantee of intellectual culture or power, and it is very doubtful whether there is any relation be-

tween the physical courage exhibited on the football field and the moral courage necessary to fight for a moral principle.

4. The transient professional coach is another constant influence toward corruption. He is the most corrupting influence in college athletics to-day. The very nature of his position induces mental states that lead to corrupt practices; he is created by a desire for a winning team. His reputation depends on the production of a winning team. Success is rewarded by a spectacular reputation and a ridiculously large salary. The temptation is too much for mortal flesh. As very few coaches have any interest, power, or patience in developing the raw material in the student body, they become active agents in producing and fostering a recruiting spirit. It is astonishing with what unanimity present-day coaches demand fully developed athletic material. They are interested in their own reputations, not in the college. Their influence is uneducational, if not anti-educational. The greater their reputations, the more dangerous they become.

5. Last, but not least in importance, among the factors that lead to corruption is an apathetic, disinterested, careless, or dishonest faculty. Given this attitude on the part of the faculty, and influences of all the other factors are without check. In fact, the whole problem of athletic control comes back to the moral responsibility of the faculty. Any college where the faculty believes that its work begins and ends in the class-room will be disgraced by corrupt practices. This may be laid down as a general principle; either the administrative heads of the college, the faculty, or some individual member of the faculty gifted with a generous amount of moral courage and self-sacrifice, backed by either the sympathy of the administration or the faculty, must take up the thankless burden of athletic regulation and control. There probably never has been a case where the whole faculty of a

college has been tolerant of dishonest practices in athletics, but cases are not uncommon where the attitude of the faculty makes anything or everything possible. Unfortunately some members of our college faculties are men of neither high moral judgment nor high moral courage. On the one hand we have, though to be sure but seldom, the fanatical fool whose prejudice reigns above his sense of justice in his attitude toward the athlete; on the other hand we have, all too often, the attitude that lowers college standards for the athlete in obedience to the popular demand for a winning team. This is bad enough for the ordinary college professor, but when the administrative heads of a college, for the sake of the advertising value of a winning team, wink at the presence of an athlete whose intelligence and scholarship are a disgrace to the scholarly standards of the institution, it is not only dishonorable, but low-bred.

These five influences which I have described as factors constant in their tendencies to corruption culminate, unless counteracted by other influences, in those practices which we so much deplore. Among these the two most prominent before the college world at the present time are: first, unsportsmanlike feelings and conduct toward opponents; second, corrupt feelings and practices concerning the use of illegitimate players. Both of these headings are deserving of lengthy discussion, but time allows me but a few words concerning what I consider the most vicious and far-reaching of all the corrupting practices in college athletics, *i. e.,* the recruiting system. The practice of recruiting athletes has been of long duration, but the present subtle and insidious systematic organization of methods for securing athletes, apparently beyond the reach of faculty authorities, makes this evil the dominant menacing evil of college athletics. It is the most vicious and far-reaching of all the corrupting practices in athletics.

Recently I have attempted to collect information concerning the extent and moral influences of this system. The investigtaion, though scarcely begun, reveals conditions that are appalling. The material indicates clearly that there are many well-defined cases where athletes have been induced to enter colleges and take part in athletics through influences of the following character:

1. Cases where pleas concerning the standing of the college, the advantages of its environment, the prominence of its athletics, were made.

2. Cases where athletes were banqueted and flattered by attentions in order to induce them to enter a particular college.

3. Cases where railroad fare or a ticket to the college town was offered.

4. Cases where a position that would pay expenses was promised or given.

5. Cases where a salary for work that existed in name only was promised or given.

6. Cases where expenses in colleges were promised or given.

7. Cases where donations or a fixed sum of money or a salary were offered or given.

While it is very hard for college authorities to get evidence that will convict, almost everyone connected intimately with athletics knows of cases that illustrate the methods just enumerated. In this connection the following letters will be of interest. Names and addresses are purposely omitted.

DEAR SIR:

Your name has been handed to me as a possible candidate for our football team for next year. I write to add that if such has been your intentions, please carry them into effect and I am sure you will never regret it. We have had a fine team here for two seasons past, and we are sure of having one next year. There are vacancies at guard, end, halfback, and quarterback, and no old man

has his position "cinched" by any means. I know your ability from your record and will state that you stand a reasonably certain show of making our team. If you come we will give you a fair and impartial show and may the best man win.

Our schedule, so far as made, includes games with [writer enumerated three great colleges], and there is a possibility of our meeting a representative eastern team, probably Yale, but as yet there is no date arranged.

Will you kindly consider the matter and let me know as to what your intentions are, and if there is anything you wish to know, or I can be of any service to you otherwise, please feel free to call on,

Yours respectfully,

[Signed by the captain of a great middle western college team.]

Note the last paragraph carefully. This letter was sent to a big, powerful man who graduates this year and still has one year during which he could play on a college team.

MY DEAR ——— :

* * * * * * * *

If you can bring Mr. ——— here with you even for a visit I will send him transportation. In case a letter would not reach me in time, telegraph at my expense, if he can come. I wish very much that you would persuade him to come here to school.

Hoping to hear from you as soon after you receive this as possible, I am,

Yours truly,

[Signed by one of the great middle western college coaches].

Manager of Football Team, State University, Columbia, Mo.;

DEAR SIR: I am informed that you have not selected your football coach for next year. . . . . I have several players in view who will go to school wherever I coach next fall. These men are good students and as good players as you will find anywhere west of the Mississippi, two are old college players and several are high school players, of these I am sure two would go to your University if I should want them to.

Yours truly,

[Signed by a prominent middle western coach.]

This man was asked what he could do, and the following was received in reply:

DEAR SIR:

Your letter of the 11th inst. stating that you had not selected your coach for next fall received a few days ago. . . . I will be willing to coach your team next year for $— for the season. You see by this that it is not the money that I am after. Besides I should spend a good deal of my own salary for the benefit of the team. Of course I should use this as I saw fit. . . . I know of several men who I am quite sure I could induce to enter your institution if I coached next fall. . . . .

Yours truly,

[Signed by same as last above.]

Manager Football Team, Columbia, Mo.:

DEAR SIR: What inducement can you offer a football player for the coming year? Have been under an efficient coach for two years and played R. H. on one of the leading western college teams. Weight 175. I am, Yours respectfully,

_____

DEAR SIR:

I will now take the pleasure of dropping you a few lines to ask you a few question which I hope you will oblige me by answern them. Under what agreement can I enter the Missouri State University I would like to get in that football team I have been playing football four years and have been coached and practiced with a good many college players, I will gaurntee you that I will make good the first year. I have two offers from eastern colleges, but I would sooner go west, for that is where I intend to make my home in the future. Well, as I have no more to say I guess I will close hoping to hear from you soon Our by return mail, I remain

_____.

Age 19 years, weight 185, height 5 ft 7 in.

These letters are but samples; they speak for themselves.

Doubtless there are numerous wild rumors and exaggerated tales concerning the practices of particular col-

leges and the golden opportunities offered the expert athlete; but if we had no proofs, the volumes of smoke indicate that there is some fire. The pitiable mental condition of those athletes who live on the outskirts of great athletic centers is proof in itself of the presence and debauching influence of the recruiting system.

Many are the complaints that college athletics have become a business in which winning out at any cost is the chief end—in which the spirit of commercialism is dominant. Disapproval is swamped in a growing conviction that recruiting is essential in order to make a respectable showing.

Among enthusiasts the all-absorbing topic of conversation is the nature of the material and the chances to win. The negotiations of the management for a coach are rife with such queries as: "What sort of material have you?" "What have you done to get good material?" The temper of the athletically inclined is elated or depressed according to the inventory of crack athletes on hand.

My data show clearly that the recruiting system has produced a widespread conviction among students that athletic power is a very desirable acquisition, that it at least insures a good time, easy work, prominence, and, where necessary, enables the athlete to get an education without cost to himself. There is scarcely an athlete of any prominence in the Southwest who does not believe that his athletic ability would net him handsome returns in any of the great northern or eastern colleges. Just imagine, if you do not actually know, the moral results of such a notion!

It would seem that students, alumni, managers, captains, and coaches, intoxicated by an exaggerated enthusiasm and a passion to win, have gone mad in a gluttonous search for material.

Apart from its corrupting influence, the recruiting

system as a policy is absolutely anti-educational. It is destructive of real internal athletic development. It discourages all effort toward the development of the latent athletic ability of undergraduates. It forces further recruiting. Survey the members of almost any college team that jumps to sudden prominence: what proportion of its members are developed from the ranks of the student body? What proportion are ready-made athletes from other sources?

President Jordan recently said: "I fear football has outgrown its usefulness." This seems to be the growing sentiment among the leading college men that have supported athletics. They have supported football, in common with other phases of athletics, because of their value to young men. Recently they have uttered nothing but complaints. Lose their support and the days of football prosperity are numbered.

Face to face with this demoralizing and ruinous influence we may well ask: What is to be done? Are we to resort to further rule-making? Personally, I believe that technical legislation on rules of eligibility has about reached its limit of usefulness. There are one or two rules that might be helpful, but it is a serious commentary on the motives at work in athletics that we have had forced upon us already so many rules. What is needed is a change of heart in the application of these rules. We need to apply our rules from the standpoint of the rival college. The world should know that the honor of the institution is to be placed above the right of any individual to take part in intercollegiate contests. How different is this standpoint from the one usually adopted, yet it would do away with the frequent disgraceful intercollegiate squabbles over the eligibility of players. Further, it would diminish those rumors that are now a corrupting influence in themselves.

The application of rules of eligibility, however, no

matter how conscientiously and generously interpreted, will not suffice to eradicate the baneful practices now dominating athletics. We must change our attack and strike at the factors constant in their tendency to produce those practices.

1. Among the factors that are constant in their influences for corruptions, the professional coach stands in a class by himself. His educational position is anomalous. He is the center in which, and around which all the other baneful influences are aroused and operated. There is only one thing to do with him, and that is, eliminate him.

2. Associated with the professional coach are those dishonest students, alumni, and sympathizers who, dominated by an unhealthy craving to win, resort to such subtle methods in the recruiting of expert athletes that they are the despair of faculty committees on athletics. Unfortunately all of this element cannot be eliminated. I have often been asked: How can you find out what is done by these people? There is only one way to reach the dishonest element, and that is, let the policy toward recruiting athletes be well understood, and then make any effort at recruiting unsafe, by compelling each candidate for a team to sign a certificate so searching in its character that it will be hard for any irregularity to escape detection.

The following certificate seems to me to be pregnant with possibilities for the discouragement of recruiting agents and methods:

ELIGIBILITY CERTIFICATE.

[*Face of certificate.*]

NOTE.—"Any candidate for an athletic team who, in signing his eligibility certificate, or when asked questions by the Director, makes misrepresentations or omissions concerning his athletic career shall be dismissed from the University."—By order of the Executive Board of Curators.

Get a copy of the rules of eligibility and read them carefully before signing this certificate.

Name in full.....
Candidate for what degree..... Class.....
Date when first entered college.....
Date of entrance this year.....
Are you regularly attending and do you propose to attend the course for which you are registered?.....
Number of credit hours' work..... Have you any delinquencies in scholarship? .....
Have you been a member of a team in any other college?.....
If so (*a*) Were you in good standing in your studies?.....
(*b*) Did you drop out before the end of the college half-year after taking part in athletics?.....
How many years have you played in the aggregate on a college team? .....
Are you an amateur according to the rules of the Amateur Athletic Union? .....
Have you ever been a member of a team other than a team connected with an educational institution?.....
Have you ever received compensation directly or indirectly for participation in any athletic contest?.....
Have you ever directly or indirectly offered your athletic abilities to be used by any athletic team for compensation?.....
Have you received any intimations that you would be tendered compensation for your present connection with athletics which you have not reported to the Director of Athletics?.....
Have you received any offer of compensation from a student or athletic official of any educational institution for your athletic abilities which you have not reported to the Director of Athletics? .....
Do you hereby promise to report any such offer when received?.....
Do you receive any compensation from the University for instruction of any kind?.....
What is your source of support?.....

[*Back of certificate.*]

OUTLINE OF INSTITUTIONAL AND ATHLETIC CAREER.

In the first column below give a complete list of preparatory schools and colleges attended, in chronological order. In the second column place after each school the teams for which you were

a candidate, with years, and the teams upon which you played, with years.

Also give teams played on other than school teams. Make a note of any athletic institutions or coaching done, whether paid for it or not.

SCHOOLS ATTENDED, WITH YEARS.	TEAMS PLAYED ON, WITH YEARS.

I certify by this, my signature, that the above statements are correct, that I am an amateur, and in every way eligible according to the spirit and letter of the rules adopted by Missouri University.

(Signed) .....

To the best of my belief and knowledge I certify that the above is correct.

.....
Captain of.....Team.

.....
Manager of.....Team

.....
Coach of.....Team

Back this certificate by a well-enforced rule such as that stated at the head of the certificate, and the discipline of the institution must be lax indeed, and the character of the students very low, if it does not place the situation well within the hands of a vigorous committeeman. No college has a right to use an athlete without investigating his career. The co-operation of other colleges should be asked. An investigation and vigorous cross-questioning should handle the most stubborn case. If there are suspicious circumstances surrounding an athlete's career, he should be disqualified.

3. Many of the corrupting influences in athletics are subject to and will yield to the educational influences and discipline of the faculty. This is true of those influences that are due to crudeness, ignorance, prejudice, undis-

ciplined enthusiasm, or chagrin—in fact, all those factors which I have classed under the head of provincialism, exaggerated athleticism, as well as the representative normal student craving to win. The rougher, cruder element needs the influence of discipline, but the majority of college students will follow an appeal for high standards, generous sportsmanship, and manly conduct.

At a recent meeting of athletic representatives from the leading colleges in Missouri, called to discuss the athletic situation, seven resolutions were adopted, the first three of which were as follows:

1. *Resolved,* That it is the conviction of this conference that all college athletics should be under the control and supervision of the college faculty. That the faculty authorities responsible for the standards maintained in athletics should instruct the general student body, as well as candidates for teams, in the principles of good sportsmanship and manly conduct in their athletic activity, and that penalties be imposed upon players who in any way resort to unfair tactics in a contest or make themselves obnoxious while connected with the team.

2. *Resolved,* That in every college community a public opinion should be fostered which shall be absolutely fair and courteous to visiting teams, which shall be prompt to recognize and applaud good plays and acts of chivalry on either side, and which never drops below the plane of considerate and gentlemanly conduct.

3. *Resolved,* That the authorities of each college discountenance betting in connection with athletic events and endeavor to build up a public sentiment against this baneful evil.

I believe these resolutions contain hopeful suggestions for a future line of action in the control of athletics.

That their spirit as well as the suggestions concerning methods are capable of practical application we have fully demonstrated by results accomplished in Missouri University.

If the intent of these resolutions is wise, they indicate a need in college life of some organized educational work in student affairs. Walter Camp in a private conversation suggested this need several years ago. Why not give official recognition to the literary, debating, dramatic, musical, and athletic activities of students as a part of their college career? Place them under the direction of a secretary, or director, or dean of student activities, who shall be charged with the control of student affairs and organize educational work along the lines suggested by the resolutions just read.

These suggestions for the control, suppression, or elimination of corrupting characters in the college community and the education of the student body in standards of sportsmanship will rid athletics of all these corrupting factors described above, just in proportion to the efficiency of the faculty in its work.

Can we not go farther and establish principles that will tend to secure the educational value of college athletics as well as dictate methods for the legitimate development of athletics as a sport? If competitive athletics are to remain a permanent phase of college student life, they must be organized and conducted in harmony with the broader educational aims of the college. The craving to participate in athletics, the craving to win, and the pleasures in highly developed expert athletic performances are normal and healthful, and should have legitimate expression.

Can a criterion be established making the distinction between corrupt practices and legitimate practices in developing a winning team as clear-cut as the distinction between professional and amateur? If college athletics

have a value for college men, if they have a place among or associated with the college duties of the students, that value is for the undergraduate. Therefore I ask: Will not this serve as the criterion sought? Any influence that bars or tends to discourage the average undergraduate from participation in athletic sports is a corrupting, ruinous, and professionalizing policy because its logical end is hired men.

This principle logically applied would itself revolutionize present-day athletic methods. In the first place, it would dictate a suppression of the recruiting system. In the second place, it would dictate very stringent rules against the graduate player or eliminate him. In the third place, it would dictate as a substitute for the professional coach a permanent instructing head or body that could systematically organize the development of latent athletic talent. Lastly, it would tend to place athletics under their normal and most healthful auspices as a phase of the department work in physical training. The department organization of athletics secures their educational value to a large number of students working at a normal intensity, as against a few working at an abnormal intensity. From experiences in Missouri we feel that this is the ultimate method of solution for all the problems in competitive athletics.

As a last word I wish to say that the responsibility for the moral condition in athletics rests on the leading college or colleges in any community. The responsibility for athletic morality in Missouri rests largely with the State University; the responsibility for athletics in the middle West rests largely with Michigan, Chicago, and Wisconsin. Unless these three institutions handle their athletics by methods that are above reproach, every irregularity or rumor of irregularity will be duplicated in a series of reverberations from lesser colleges. Moral responsibility never fails to come home to its own.

PRESIDENT JORDAN, of Leland Stanford Junior University, being called upon to speak on the subject of athletics, then addressed the Association as follows:

I may say that I have never heard a discussion on any college matter that I agree with so thoroughly from one end to the other. I feel under very great obligations to all the different speakers.

I think that we in Stanford University are ready to join with Professor Woodward's scheme of putting the whole matter of athletics in charge of a composite committee. Two years ago in California we abolished the professional coach, and we shall, as soon as we can get around to it, abolish the gate money. The rest of the evils will mostly take care of themselves.

In regard to the professional coach we have had rather a peculiar experience. It was the great fortune of California that when football began Walter Camp came as professional coach. He was with us at Stanford some four years, and he started the whole matter—so far as both the institutions on the coast are concerned—on a sound basis. He was really a college man with college instincts, and his influence has not yet lapsed on the coast. We have a great advantage there in having only two great institutions; there is but one great game, and when that is over everything drops. We do not find it necessary to play right and left in every direction.

It seems to me—without trying to go over the ground so well gone over already—that one very important element rests with the faculty itself. It is the absolute duty of the faculty to see that there is nobody in the institution for football alone. The football player should be compelled to go right on with his work in essentially the same way as the others do. It is impossible for him to do that and play fifteen or twenty different games; and these fifteen or twenty different games are an unmitigated evil.

It is impossible for ten or twelve or fifteen games to be played by the team of any institution without that institution suffering. The faculty must join in overlooking the fact that these men are not doing the work that they ought to do. And that brings up another duty of the faculty. It is impossible for the faculty to treat its football idlers severely if it allows its other loafers to go on to the end of the term. I think that the most important move in university advancement in this country now is, getting rid of the idlers—all classes of idlers; not only those who do not pass their examinations at the end of the term, but those who are not doing from day to day the work that they ought to do. When we are ready to get rid of the idlers, it will be easy to get rid of the football idlers.

I have the permission of the Michigan men here to say a very plain word. We had Walter Camp with us as a coach, and every influence that came from Camp was good. We had two other men from Yale afterward, Cross and Chamberlain; their influence was good, but they did not win any games. And then we had other men who did win a game. Among others we had Yost, and with Yost we won the game of that year; and what I want to get at is simply an illustration:

A young fellow came in from the mines who wanted to study mining engineering—a tremendously big and strong fellow. He was admitted because of certain symptoms of earnestness he showed—admitted as special student, having no credits whatever. He was not allowed to take part in any athletic sports whatever at Stanford, failed in his studies, and was dropped. Yost carried him to Michigan, where he has become the center of the strong team which is the pride of Michigan University; and this man, who was not able to pass any examinations when he was not playing, has been playing some ten or fifteen games a year at Michigan. And he is

a type of the kind of corruption for which, in its last analysis, the faculties of the universities alone are responsible. It is up to us to see that that kind of man is not used for that kind of purpose.

There are a great many other illustrations of that sort which I might give, and I know the Michigan men will pardon me for using their particular sins when the rest of us have all been sinners. All of us who have ever had Yost or any Yost-like man about are not to be counted as sinless.

Now, if we get rid of our idlers—our men who are working simply for social recognition, those who are dissipating, those who are stupid and cannot do the work—if we will simply take the pains to get rid of them, as we need to do if they are enemies, then we shall be able to attack the athletic imposter and parasite. But it is impossible to do away with men like Gregory while we allow the other idlers who are engaged in other pursuits to remain in the institution.

I feel proud, as a representative of Stanford, where we once had Hetherington, of the work that Hetherington has done in the University of Missouri in cleaning up and purifying the condition which is made by the toleration by the university faculties of all those various evils and by the extension of the methods by which men win at any cost.

PRESIDENT JESSE, of the University of Missouri:

I think that the two most important questions that have ever been brought before the North Central Association are these: the report yesterday afternoon on accredited schools, and this discussion this morning.

Forgive me a little; I want to tell an incident which is unique, but illustrates a good point. Years ago the University of Missouri was guilty of all the low-grade athletic sins that any institution of learning could be

guilty of. The sins of higher grade it perhaps avoided. The president, I must say, stood constantly against corruption in athletics, but he happened to be a simple-minded creature that has always been easy to fool and is easy to fool now. He doesn't know how to look a man in the face and question his word until he knows that man to be a liar. On a certain occasion a colporter, representing the Y. M. C. A. and its colporter work, came to the University of Missouri. He was a giant; Goliath of Gath was small beside him. He was the biggest, strongest man I ever saw. He came there to sell us Young Men's Christian Association books. The boys immediately seized upon him for the football team, and persuaded him to stop Christianizing and to go into athletic associations. The president became suspicious, and when the young man presented himself for admission he said to him: "Mr. B., are you coming into this university to play football or to study?" He put on the most injured look that I ever saw a man put on: "Sir, I am coming to study. I am engaged in this work of selling books in order that I may gain an education, and I think that I have found a good institution." That tickled me. I said: "So you propose to stay during the entire year and to complete it?" He said: "God helping me, yes." My piety—the little that I have—was excited, stimulated. He said: "If I can possibly make money to stay, I shall stay with you." I said: "Sir, I beg your pardon for asking you these questions. I feel very much mortified for having suspected the purity of your motives." We shook hands. I admitted him as a student. He played magnificently; the team won every game that year, and I even tried to meet Michigan; tried strenuously; even wrote to President Angell challenging him to a game. I thought my team was all right—a lovely team. I didn't know that it was corrupt. The president replied that the only game that he could give me would be one between

himself and myself, and he thought that I would better not engage in that. At the end of the season—namely the great Thanksgiving game at Kansas City, which is the athletic representative now of the old border warfare between Kansas and Missouri—at that athletic game this fellow won a glorious victory, and we sang the song of Miriam after the passage of the Red Sea. I never saw the man after that; I have never seen him since. He disappeared in a blaze of glory, and I found out the next spring (they always let these things leak out in the spring, when it is too late for the old man to make a fuss about it) that the students had offered him no money, but he represented that if he didn't play football, but sold Young Men's Christian Association books, he would probably sell 140 copies of the book which he was chiefly representing; and the alumni down town—not the boys at the university—bought 140 copies. It was some book of piety, I don't know what; we will say *Baxter's Call to the Unconverted.* One or two other things of that sort happened, and I determined that I would get somebody that had a better head for conducting these things than I had, and, following the example of the University of Chicago (which I commend to you in this respect), we scoured the federal Union for a director of the gymnasium and under his control we placed all athletics from a croquet mallet and a tennis racket up to the gymasium and the football. We strove to get a man and not a great lump of beastly muscle, and we found a man in a graduate of Stanford University taking postgraduate work at Clark University. That man has cleansed the university for us, and athletics have become with us—forgive my modesty—a means of grace. He has, with the aid of Washington University, practically cleansed the state of Missouri; but in order to keep clean ourselves we must cleanse the northern half of the Mississippi valley.

PRINCIPAL E. V. ROBINSON, of the Central High School, St. Paul:

It is late, and I shall not say many words, but I do want to say this, that the secondary men—high school men—are confronted with a great problem in respect to this matter, and the solution of that problem depends very largely upon the universities, because our boys in the high schools are constantly copying the universities and the colleges; and until this northern half of the Mississippi valley is somewhat cleansed it is an almost impossible problem for the high school men to maintain any sort of purity or decency in high school athletics. In the football contests we have had to contend with every one of the vices that have been named here, and some that have not been named. And it is becoming a very serious question indeed whether we would not have to destroy high school athletics root and branch in order to get rid of this thing. The high school with which I am connected enrolls some 1,300 students, and aside from the routine office work, all I have had time to do this year has been to attend to athletics; and I don't think I have wasted very much time either.

I do not know what the next move is going to be. In one respect I was able to congratulate myself, and that is that we started in at the financial end of this. In my own experience I found that those who were elected to positions of control did so avowedly and openly for the purpose of grafting. And we got rid of this root and branch by means of direct and indirect faculty control. But that thing still continues between the schools. There is a Northwestern Athletic Association, which has a very high-sounding title, though it really includes only the schools of Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Stillwater; and that thing is a stealing thing from start to finish. It is a notorious fact that in various ways hundreds of dollars

have disappeared. And it is, so far, entirely out of the control of the faculty of any of the schools.

The control of our athletics in the high school in respect to scholarship has been a most difficult thing with us. We did not start at that end; we started at the financial end. And this year I have suspended more people from school for violating rules of scholarship with respect to athletics than for all other purposes put together. And the end is not yet. We shall not be able to establish any sort of decent condition in athletics in high schools until there is more decency in athletics in college.

PROFESSOR HOLGATE, of Northwestern University:

I wish sincerely that some steps could be taken to have these papers published between now and the first of June that they might be distributed broadcast through this Mississippi valley, both in the colleges and the high schools, and particularly through the boards of colleges and trustees—say May 1st or April 15, if possible. I make that as a motion.

An amendment was moved by President Kirk, that a sufficient number of special pamphlets be published, including only the proceedings of the Saturday morning session, to supply the demand, the number to be left to the judgment of the officers.

The amendment was accepted and included as part of the motion, and the motion as thus amended was adopted.

At the request of Principal Harris, Dean Woodward, of Washington University, was added to the Committee on Athletics.

It was moved by Professor Snow, that consideration of the last resolution on the printed programme be made a special order for the next annual meeting. The motion was adopted.

The report of the auditing committee was then presented as follows, and, upon motion was adopted:

Your auditing committee would respectfully report that they have examined and checked over the accounts of the treasurer and find them correct.

Respectfully submitted,

S. O. HARTWELL,
C. A. WALDO,
E. D. EATON.

The committee on time and place of the next meeting reported as follows:

We recommend that the next meeting of the Association be held at the Auditorium, in Chicago, on the first Friday and Saturday in April, 1904, the Executive Committee to be empowered to change the date to the week previous or following, should them deem best.

E. L. HARRIS,
W. J. S. BRYAN,
W. W. BEMAN.

On motion the report was adopted with the amendment that the Executive Committee be empowered to change the place as well as the time.

The Committee on Nominations presented the following report:

Your Committee on Nominations begs to recommend for election to the various offices to be filled the names given below.

Respectfully yours,

GEO. E. MACLEAN,
CARL LEO MEES,
FREDERICK L. BLISS.

FOR PRESIDENT:

President Andrew S. Draper,
University of Illinois.

FOR VICE PRESIDENTS:

OHIO—

President H. C. King,
Oberlin College.
Principal Malcolm Booth,
Steele High School, Dayton.

MICHIGAN—

Professor Delos Fall,
Albion College.
Principal Webster Cook,
Saginaw East Side High School.

INDIANA—

President W. P. Kane,
Wabash College.
Principal C. T. Lane,
Fort Wayne High School.

ILLINOIS—

President E. J. James,
Northwestern University.
Director E. O. Sisson,
Bradley Polytechnic Institute.

WISCONSIN—

President Edward D. Eaton,
Beloit College.
Principal J. H. Pratt,
Milwaukee Academy.

MINNESOTA—

President Cyrus Northrup,
University of Minnesota.
Principal E. V. Robinson,
St. Paul High School.

IOWA—

President Wm. F. King,
Cornell College.
President H. H. Seerley (Cedar Falls),
State Normal School.

MISSOURI—
President Richard H. Jesse,
University of Missouri.
Principal W. J. S. Bryan,
St. Louis High School.

NEBRASKA—
President E. Benjamin Andrews,
University of Nebraska.

KANSAS—
Chancellor Frank Strong,
University of Kansas.

COLORADO—
President James H. Baker,
University of Colorado.
Principal W. H. Smiley,
High School District No. 1, Denver.

FOR SECRETARY:

Professor Joseph V. Denney,
Ohio State University, Columbus.

FOR TREASURER:

Principal J. E. Armstrong,
Englewood High School, Chicago.

FOR EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE:

Principal E. L. Harris, Cleveland Central High School.
President John R. Kirk, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.
President George E. MacLean, State University of Iowa.
Professor Fred. N. Scott, University of Michigan.

On motion the secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for the nominees recommended by the committee.

President Harper, of the University of Chicago, then invited the members of the Association and their visitors to take luncheon at the Quadrangle Club at 1 o'clock.

It was moved by Principal Harris that a vote of

thanks be tendered to President Harper and the authorities of the University of Chicago for their hospitality in entertaining the Association, and also that the very hearty thanks of the Association be given to President Jordan, of the Leland Stanford, Junior, University, for the part which he has taken in the meetings of the Association, and in particular for his admirable address on Friday evening. The motion was adopted.

The Association then adjourned, at 12:30 p. m.

Upon invitation of President Harper, the members of the Association then attended an informal luncheon at the Quadrangle Club.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

INSTITUTIONS.

(c. m. means charter member.)

OHIO.

Ohio State University, c. m., Columbus, President W. O. Thompson.
Western Reserve University, c. m., Cleveland, President Chas. F. Thwing.
Oberlin College, c. m., Oberlin, President H. C. King.
Ohio Wesleyan University, c. m., Delaware, President Jas. W. Bashford.
Denison University, '99, Granville, President Emory W. Hunt.
University of Cincinnati, '99, Cincinnati, President H. Ayers.
Central High School, c. m., Cleveland, Principal Edward L. Harris.
Hughes High School, '96, Cincinnati, Principal E. W. Coy.
Steele High School, '96, Dayton, Principal Malcolm Booth.
High School, '96, Toledo, Principal C. G. Ballou.
Walnut Hills High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal J. Remsen Bishop.
Woodward High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal Geo. W. Harper.
West High School, '00, Cleveland, Principal Theo. H. Johnston.
East High School, '02, Columbus, Principal F. B. Pearson.
University School, '02, Cleveland, Principal George D. Pettee.
South High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal G. A. Ruetenik.
Lincoln High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal J. W. McLane.
High School, '02, Chillicothe, Principal Ralph R. Upton.
East High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal B. U. Rannels.

MICHIGAN.

University of Michigan, c. m., Ann Arbor, President Jas. B. Angell.
Albion College, c. m., Albion, President Samuel Dickie.
Central High School, c. m., Grand Rapids, Principal A. J. Volland.
Michigan Military Academy, c. m., Orchard Lake.
High School, '95, Kalamazoo, Superintendent S. O. Hartwell.
East Side High School, '95, Saginaw, Superintendent E. C. Warriner.
Detroit University School, '00, Detroit, Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

INDIANA.

Indiana University, c. m., Bloomington, President Joseph Swain.
Wabash College, c. m., Crawfordsville, President W. P. Kane.
High School, c. m., LaPorte, Superintendent J. W. Knight.
High School, '96, Fort Wayne, Principal C. F. Lane.
Girls' Classical School, '00, Indianapolis, Principal May W. Sewall.
High School, '01, Lafayette, Superintendent E. Ayers.

ILLINOIS.

University of Illinois, c. m., Champaign, President Andrew S. Draper.
University of Chicago, c. m., Chicago, President Wm. R. Harper.
Northwestern University, c. m., Evanston, President E. J. James.
Lake Forest University, c. m., Lake Forest, President R. D. Harlan.
Knox College, '96, Galesburg, Professor H. E. Griffith.
High School, c. m., Evanston, Principal Henry L. Boltwood.
Northwestern Academy, c. m., Evanston, Principal H. F. Fisk.
Morgan Park Academy, c. m., Morgan Park, Dean W. J. Chase.
Manual Training School, c. m., Chicago, Director H. H. Belfield.
Harvard School, c. m., Chicago, Principal John J. Schobinger.
High School, c. m., Peoria, Superintendent Newton C. Dougherty.
Lake Forest Academy, c. m., Lake Forest, Principal Conrad Hibbeler.
North Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal O. S. Westcott.
West Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal C. M. Clayberg.
Hyde Park High School, '95, Chicago, Principal C. W. French.
Lake View High School, '96, Chicago, Principal B. F. Buck.
Englewood High School, '96, Chicago, Principal J. E. Armstrong
Ottawa Tp. High School, '96, Ottawa, Principal J. O. Leslie.
Lyons Tp. High School, '96, La Grange, Principal Cole.
Lewis Institute, '95, Chicago, Director G. N. Carman.
Streator Tp. High School, '97, Streator, Principal Alfred Bayliss.
Bradley Polytechnic Institute, '97, Peoria, Director E. O. Sisson.
High School, '98, Elgin, Principal Eugene C. Pierce.
Lake High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Edward F. Stearns.
Marshall High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Louis J. Block.
Ferry Hall Seminary, '00, Lake Forest, Principal Sabra L. Sargent

WISCONSIN.

University of Wisconsin, c. m., Madison, President Van Hise.
Beloit College, c. m., Beloit, President Edward D. Eaton.

Milwaukee-Downer College, '97, Milwaukee, President Ellen C. Sabin.

Milwaukee Academy, '97, Milwaukee, Principal J. H. Pratt.

MINNESOTA.

University of Minnesota, '96, Minneapolis, President Cyrus Northrup.

IOWA.

State University of Iowa, c. m., Iowa City, President Geo. E. MacLean.

Cornell College, c. m., Mt. Vernon, President Wm. F. King.

State Normal School, c. m., Cedar Falls, President Homer H. Seerley.

Iowa College, '95, Grinnell, President J. H. P. Main.

High School, '01, Muscatine.

MISSOURI.

University of Missouri, c. m., Columbia, President Richard H. Jesse.

Washington University, c. m., St. Louis, Chancellor Winfield S. Chaplin.

Drury College, '98, Springfield, President Homer T. Fuller.

Missouri Valley College, '98, Marshall, President Wm. H. Black.

High School, '96, St. Louis, Principal W. J. S. Bryan.

Westminster College, '00, Fulton, President John H. MacCracken.

Mexico High School, '00, Mexico, Superintendent D. A. McMillan.

Manual Training High School, '00, Kansas City, Principal G. B. Morrison.

Mary Institute, 00, St. Louis, Principal E. H. Sears.

Kirkwood High School, '00, Kirkwood, Superintendent R. G. Kinkead.

Park College, '02, Parkville, President Lowell M. McAfee.

NEBRASKA.

University of Nebraska, '96, Lincoln, President E. Benj. Andrews.

KANSAS.

University of Kansas, '96, Lawrence, Chancellor Frank Strong.

COLORADO.

University of Colorado, '96, Boulder, President Jas. H. Baker.
Colorado College, '96, Colorado Springs, President W. F. Slocum.
High School No. 1, '96, Denver, President Wm. H. Smiley.

OKLAHOMA.

University of Oklahoma, '01, Norman, President David R. Boyd.

INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS.

OHIO.

Jos. V. Denney, '03, Dean of the College of Arts, Philosophy and Science, Ohio State University, Columbus.
W. W. Boyd, '03, High School Visitor, Ohio State University, Columbus.
Cady Staley, '95, President Case School, Cleveland.
Henry C. King, '96, President of Oberlin College, Oberlin.
Charles S. Howe, '02, Professor in Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland.

MICHIGAN.

W. W. Beman, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Francis W. Kelsey, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Fred N. Scott, '98, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
L. H. Jones, '95, President of State Normal, Ypsilanti.
A. S. Whitney, '03, High School Inspector, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Delos Fall, '03, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing.

INDIANA.

Clarence A. Waldo, '95, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.
Carl Leo Mees, '96, President of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute.
J. J. Mills, '99, President of Earlham College, Richmond.
Robert J. Aley, '99, Professor in Indiana University, Bloomington.
Edward Ayers, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.

W. W. Parsons, '99, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute.

Stanley Coulter, '01, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

C. N. Kendall, '01, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis.

T. F. Moran, '02, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

S. A. Forbes, '95, Dean, University of Illinois, Champaign.

A. V. E. Young, '95, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Thomas C. Chamberlin, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Harry P. Judson, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Marion Talbot, '97, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Wm. A. Greeson, '97, Dean of Lewis Institute, Chicago.

F. W. Gunsaulus, '96, President of Armour Institute, Chicago.

U. S. Grant, '02, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Thomas F. Holgate, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

J. A. James, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

A. F. Nightingale, c. m., County Superintendent, 1997 Sheridan Road, Chicago.

R. E. Hieronymus, '03, President of Eureka College, Eureka.

H. A. Hollister, '03, High School Inspector, University of Illinois, Champaign.

WISCONSIN.

Edward A. Birge, '96, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

M. V. O'Shea, '98, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

A. W. Tressler, '03, High School Inspector, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

MINNESOTA.

George B. Aiton, '97, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

F. Louis Soldan, '00, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.

John R. Kirk, '98, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.

C. M. Woodward, '99, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.

Ben Blewett, '03, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.

KANSAS.

W. A. Davidson, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.

IOWA.

J. F. Brown, '03, High School Inspector, State University, Iowa City.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

AS AMENDED AT THE THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, APRIL 1, 1898.

ARTICLE I.

NAME.

The name of this Association shall be the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE II.

OBJECT.

The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States.

ARTICLE III.

MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1.—The members of the Association shall consist of the following two classes: First, colleges and universities, and secondary schools. Secondly, individuals indentified with educational work within the limits of the Association.

Sec. 2.—Election to membership shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting, and shall be made only upon the nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3.—In the membership of the Association, the representation of higher and of secondary education shall be as nearly equal as possible.

Sec. 4.—An institutional member shall be represented at the meeting of the Association by its executive head, or by some one designated by him in credentials addressed to the Secretary.

Sec. 5.—No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than four years of secondary work.

Sec. 6.—No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study. not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

Sec. 7.—No secondary school shall be eligible to membership which does not have a four years' course of study.

ARTICLE IV.

POWERS.

All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

ARTICLE V.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

Section 1.—The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents from each state represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and four other members elected by the Association.

Sec. 2.—The officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting for the term of one year, or until their successors are elected. The election shall be by ballot.

Sec. 3.—The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint committees for conference with other bodies, whenever in their judgment it may seem expedient.

Sec. 4.—In case an officer holding office as representative of an institutional member severs his connection with the institution represented, he shall at his discretion hold his office until the close of the next regular meeting of the Association.

Sec. 5.—The Executive Committee shall have authority to fill a vacancy in any office, the officer elected by the committee to hold office until the close of the next annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

Section 1.—The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents selected by the Executive Committee, shall preside at

the meetings of the Association, and shall sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

Sec. 2.—The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the Association and attend to all necessary correspondence and printing.

Sec. 3.—The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

Sec. 4.—The Executive Committee shall make all nominations for membership in the Association, fix the time of all meetings not otherwise provided for, prepare programmes, and act for the Association when it is not in session. All the acts of the Executive Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association and such special meetings as the Association may appoint.

ARTICLE VIII.

MEMBERSHIP FEE.

To meet expenses, an annual fee of $3.00 shall be paid by each member, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.

QUORUM.

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.

AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meeting.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1903-1904.

PRESIDENT.

Andrew S. Draper, President of the University of Illinois, Champaign.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

OHIO.

Henry C. King, President of Oberlin College, Oberlin.
Malcolm Booth, Principal of Steele High School, Dayton.

MICHIGAN.

Delos Fall, Professor in Albion College, Albion.
Webster Cook, Principal of the Saginaw East Side High School.

INDIANA.

W. P. Kane, President of Wabash College.
C. F. Lane, Principal of the Fort Wayne High School.

ILLINOIS.

E. J. James, President of the Northwestern University, Evanston.
E. O. Sisson, Director of the Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria.

WISCONSIN.

E. D. Eaton, President of Beloit College, Beloit.
J. H. Pratt, Principal of Milwaukee Academy, Milwaukee.

MINNESOTA.

Cyrus Northrup, President of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
E. V. Robinson, Principal of the Central High School, St. Paul.

IOWA.

Wm. F. King, President of Cornell College, Mt. Vernon.
H. H. Seerley, President of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls.

MISSOURI.

R. H. Jesse, President of the University of Missouri, Columbia.
W. J. S. Bryan, Principal of the High School, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA.

E. B. Andrews, President of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

KANSAS.

Frank Strong, Chancellor of the University of Kansas, Lawrence.

COLORADO.

J. H. Baker, President of the University of Colorado, Boulder.
W. H. Smiley, Principal of High School No. 1, Denver.

SECRETARY.

J. V. Denney, Professor in the Ohio State University, Columbus.

TREASURER.

Jas. E. Armstrong, Principal of Englewood High School, Chicago.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The President, The Secretary, The Treasurer, and

E. L. Harris, Principal of the Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

J. R. Kirk, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.

G. E. MacLean, President of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

F. N. Scott, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

REGISTRATION.

ADAMS, H. C., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
ALLIN, Arthur, University of Colorado, Boulder.
AYERS, Howard, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.
BALLOU, C. G., Central High School, Toledo, Ohio.
BARNES, C. W., Illinois College, Jacksonville.
BEMAN, W. W., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
BLACK, W. H., Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Mo.
BLISS, F. L., Detroit University School, Detroit, Mich.
BOURNE, H. E., Western Reserve Univeristy, Cleveland, Ohio.
BOYD, D. R., University of Oklahoma, Norman.
BOYD, W. W., Ohio State University, Columbus.
BRIDGMAN, W. R., Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Ill.
BROWN, J. F., State University, Iowa City, Iowa.
BRYAN, W. J. S., High School, St. Louis, Mo.
BRYAN, W. L., Indiana University, Bloomington.
CARMAN, G. N., Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.
CARRUTH, W. H., University of Kansas, Lawrence.
CHAPLIN, W. S., Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.
CHURCH, H. V., Berwyn, Ill.
COOK, Webster, East Side High School, Saginaw, Mich.
DENNEY, J. V., Ohio State University, Columbus.
DRAPER, A. S., University of Illinois, Urbana.
EATON, E. D., Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.
ELSON, W. H., Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.
GRIFFITH, H. E., Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.
GROVE, J. H., Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware.
HARPER, W. R., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
HARRIS, E. L., Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
HARTWELL, S. O., Superintendent, Kalamazoo, Mich.
HATFIELD, H. R., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
HIERONYMUS, R. E., Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.
HETHERINGTON, C. W., University of Missouri, Columbia.
HOLGATE, Thomas, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
HOLLISTER, H. A., University of Illinois, Urbana.
HOPKINS, A. H., the John Crerar Library, Chicago, Ill.
JACK, A. E., Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill.
JAMES, J. A., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

JAMES, E. J., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
JESSE, R. H., University of Missouri, Columbia.
JONES, G. M., Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
JORDAN, D. S., Leland Stanford University, Los Angeles, Cal.
JUDSON, H. P., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
KEELER, Harry, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.
KINLEY, David, University of Illinois, Urbana.
KIRK, John R., State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.
LOCKE, G. H., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
MACCRACKEN, J. H., Westminster College, Fulton, Mo.
MACLEAN, G. E., State University, Iowa City, Iowa.
MEES, C. L., Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Ind.
MORAN, T. F., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
NIGHTINGALE, A. F., County Superintendent, 1997 Sheridan Road, Chicago, Ill.
PRATT, J. H., Milwaukee Academy, Milwaukee, Wis.
ROBINSON, E. V., Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.
SCOTT, F. N., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
SNOW, M. S., Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.
STAGG, A. A., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
THWING, C. F., Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
TRESSLER, A. W., University of Wisconsin, Madison.
WALDO, C. A., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
WHITNEY, A. S., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
WOODWARD, C. M., Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.
WRIGHT, D. S., State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
WRIGHT, H. C., 1 Sixth Avenue, LaGrange, Ill.

APPENDIX TO THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL STATES
1903

REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
1903

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The Commission met at 9:30 a. m., Thursday, April 2, 1903, at the Auditorium in Chicago, with Professor H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago, in the chair. The members present were President Thwing, of Western Reserve University; Secretary Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal Harris, of the Cleveland Central High School; Professor Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Superintendent Hartwell, of Kalamazoo, Mich.; Principal Bliss, of the Detroit University School; Professor Griffith, of Knox College; Principal Armstrong, of the Englewood High School; Professor Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin; President Eaton, of Beloit College; President Jesse, of the University of Missouri; Professor Snow, of Washington University; Professor Allin, of the University of Colorado; Superintendent Nightingale, of Chicago; President Kirk, of the State Normal School of Missouri, and Director Carman, of Lewis Institute.

Chairman Whitney, of the Board of Inspection of the Commission, submitted blanks that had been prepared for the use of the Board, and gave an informal report of the work of the Board in the preparation of a list of high schools entitled to the accredited relationship. The report was informally discussed by the Commission.

Professor Moore, of the University of Chicago, submitted to the Commission a statement supplementary to the definition of the units in mathematics. This state-

EVENING SESSION.

g session was devoted to an informal dis-
: definition of a unit course of study.
, as it appears in the report of the
s as follows: "A unit course of study
a course covering a school year of not
-five weeks, with four or five periods of
ve minutes each per week." It was agreed
tion should be so interpreted as to include
h the length of the period of recitation is
provided there are five periods a week.

H. P. JUDSON,
Chicago, Chairman of the Commission.
GEORGE N. CARMAN,
Institute, Secretary of the Commission.

ission met for reorganization at the Uni-
ago, at 2 o'clock, Saturday, April 4, 1903.
ng are members of the Commission: Pro-
. Denney, and Inspector W. W. Boyd, of
University; President Charles F. Thwing,
Bowen, of Western Reserve University;
. Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal Ed-
s, of the Central High School of Cleve-
E. W. Coy, of the Hughes High School,
pector A. S. Whitney, of the University
rincipal A. J. Volland, of the Central High
apids, Mich.; Superintendent S. O. Hart-
zoo; Principal Frederick L. Bliss, of the
ity School; President William T. Bryan,
niversity; Principal C. F. Lane, of Fort
chool; Principal May W. Sewall, of the

of the units defined in the report of the Commission on Accredited Schools."

It was voted that a committee of five be appointed to take into consideration the advisability of extending the work of the Commission so as to include accredited colleges and to determine what should be the requirements for the bachelor's degree. The committee, appointed by President Jesse, is as follows: President Thwing, Principal Bliss, President Angell, President Northrup, and President Baker.

After a full discussion of technical education in the secondary schools and in colleges, it was voted that tentative definitions of at least one unit in each of the following subjects should be prepared: shop-work, drawing, commercial work, physical culture. Chairmen were appointed, with the understanding that they were to select two additional members in each case, as follows: shop-work and drawing, Director Carman; commercial work, President James[1], of Northwestern University; physical culture, Mr. E. B. DeGroot, of the Lewis Institute.

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[1]President James is unable to serve, and Chairman Judson has appointed Dr. Henry R. Hatfield, of the University of Chicago, in place of President James.

EVENING SESSION.

The evening session was devoted to an informal discussion of the definition of a unit course of study. This definition, as it appears in the report of the Commission, is as follows: "A unit course of study is defined as a course covering a school year of not less than thirty-five weeks, with four or five periods of at least forty-five minutes each per week." It was agreed that this definition should be so interpreted as to include schools in which the length of the period of recitation is forty minutes, provided there are five periods a week.

H. P. JUDSON,
University of Chicago, Chairman of the Commission.
GEORGE N. CARMAN,
Lewis Institute, Secretary of the Commission.

The Commission met for reorganization at the University of Chicago, at 2 o'clock, Saturday, April 4, 1903.

The following are members of the Commission: Professor Joseph V. Denney, and Inspector W. W. Boyd, of the Ohio State University; President Charles F. Thwing, and Inspector Bowen, of Western Reserve University; Secretary G. M. Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal Edward L. Harris, of the Central High School of Cleveland; Principal E. W. Coy, of the Hughes High School, Cnicinnati; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal A. J. Volland, of the Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo; Principal Frederick L. Bliss, of the Detroit University School; President William T. Bryan, of the Indiana University; Principal C. F. Lane, of Fort Wayne High School; Principal May W. Sewall, of the

Girls' Classical School, Indianapolis; Superintendent C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis; Inspector H. A. Hollister, of the University of Illinois; Professor George E. Vincent, of the University of Chicago; Professor H. E. Griffith, of Knox College; Professor W. R. Bridgman, of Lake Forest College; Principal C. W. French, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School, Chicago; Director G. N. Carman, of Lewis Institute; Professor Harry P. Judson, of the University of Chicago; Professor J. A. James, of Northwestern University; Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Inspector A. W. Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin; Professor Edward A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; President Edward D. Eaton, of Beloit College; Inspector George B. Aiton, of Minnesota; President George E. MacLean, of the State University of Iowa; Inspector J. F. Brown, of the State University of Iowa; President Homer H. Seerley, of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls; President Richard H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri; Inspector W. N. Hoge, of Missouri; Professor Marshall S. Snow, of Wasington University; Superintendent F. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis; President John R. Kirk, of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; Chancellor E. Benjamin Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; Professor Lawrence Fossler, of the University of Nebraska; Professor W. H. Carruth, of the University of Kansas; President James H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Professor A. Allin, of the University of Colorado; Principal William H. Smiley, of the Denver High School.

The following members of the Commission were present: Professor Judson, President Kirk, Inspector Whitney, President MacLean, Principal Bliss, Secretary Jones, Principal Armstrong, Professor Carruth, Professor Snow, Professor James, Professor Griffith, Pro-

fessor Denney, Inspector Brown, Inspector Tressler, Principal Harris, Inspector Bowen, Professor Bridgman, Superintendent Nightingale, Director Carman.

Professor Judson was chosen chairman of the Commission, and Director Carman secretary.

The following were made members of the Board of Inspection, with the understanding that three should constitute a quorum: Inspectors Whitney, Brown, Tressler, Aiton, Boyd, and Hollister. Inspectors Whitney and Aiton were appointed for the term of one year; Inspectors Brown and Tressler for two years; Inspectors Boyd and Hollister for three years.

After an informal discussion of the work of the coming year, the Commission adjourned, to meet the day preceding the next meeting of the Association.

HARRY PRATT JUDSON,
Chairman of the Commission.
GEORGE N. CARMAN,
Secretary.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MATHEMATICS.

[This statement of the mathematics requirement is designed not to replace, but to supplement the definition published in the Report for 1902.]

The colleges make no formal entrance requirement in arithmetic, but presuppose a thorough training in this subject—the four fundamental operations with whole numbers, decimal and common fractions, percentage and its simple applications—as antecedent to the formal study

of geometry and algebra. In connection with the latter subjects the facility in computation gained in arithmetic should be exercised and strengthened; these subjects, on the other hand, round out the work of arithmetic and make possible a more careful proof of its theory. The aspect of algebra as generalized arithmetic should be constantly kept in mind, and the theorems of arithmetic contained as special cases in those of algebra should be pointed out, exemplified, and applied in numerical cases. The examinations in algebra and geometry may always and should usually test incidentally the candidate's theoretical and practical knowledge of arithmetic. It is desirable that the work in arithmetic be closely related to the study of nature; here the book of W. S. Jackman, Nature Study for Grammar Grades (The Macmillan Company, 1898), will be found useful.

In integral connection with arithmetic geometric forms should be studied from the outset, their principal properties being learned by observation and experiment. Informal proofs of a deductive character may be gradually introduced, as the pupils feel, or may be led to feel, the need for such proofs.

Similarly, the advantages of the literal representation of numbers may be gradually made evident and utilized in the solution of problems, leading to simple equations, and in the compact and clear statement of results (formulæ). Initially the natural literal notations (for number of units of length, etc.) should be used exclusively.

Mathematics owes its genesis largely to the needs of measurement. As in the race, so in the individual, the generalizations, the abstract form should be developed late, though foreshadowed long. From the beginnings of arithmetic to the close of the secondary school, at least, the march should always be from the concrete to the abstract. The concrete is itself variable; what is abstract

at one stage is quite concrete at another. In the secondary school, many concrete starting points for mathematical work are to be found in the physical sciences; for algebra the specific numerical relations of arithmetic often furnish a concrete basis.

In the secondary school arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry should be regarded and treated as different phases of one subject, mathematics, and not as different and mutually exclusive subjects. The geometric, the arithmetical, the algebraic, and the physical phases of mathematics should be presented from the beginning to the end of the secondary school course. To do this best and most freely would require some reshaping of curricula, which should come gradually. But the individual teacher can do much, pending this readjustment, by letting down the barriers, by using geometry in algebra, and algebra in geometry, by concrete physical, graphical, arithmetical work, by free use of whatever material or methods will help towards the main end.

The teacher's constant aim should be to train the pupil to *think:* to observe accurately; to describe accurately in language, in picture, in equation; to make inferences correctly; to act on his inferences; to formulate clearly what he has done. The pupil's attitude must be, in the main, that of an active worker, not that of a passive listener.

With the systematic restoration of the close relations between mathematics and the physical sciences, so long unnaturally severed in the instruction of the secondary school, it is well to consider the methods of instruction in the physical laboratory. Some of these methods, suitably modified, may be of value also in the instruction in mathematics.

It is desirable that teachers keep themselves informed concerning movements in progress for the improvement of the teaching of mathematical science. The reports of

the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Schools, the Committee of Ten on Secondary Schools, and the Committee of Thirteen on College Entrance Requirements of the National Educational Association (Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn., Secretary) have been published; they contain valuable sections on mathematics. The Teachers' Professional Library (The Macmillan Company) and the American Teachers' Series (Longmans, Green & Co.) contain volumes on the teaching of elementary mathematics, by D. E. Smith (1900) and J. W. A. Young (announced). References to the literature of the effective movement of reform in the pedagogy of elementary mathematics in England, initiated by John Perry, are given in the address of E. H. Moore (*Science,* Mar. 13, 1903). The Mathematics Section of the Central Association of Science, and Mathematics' Teachers (Charles H. Smith, Hyde Park High School, Chicago, President) and the *Mathematical Supplement of School Science* (School Science Press, Ravenswood, Chicago) are devoted to the interests of mathematics in the secondary schools.

ELIAKIM H. MOORE,
Professor of Mathematics, University of Chicago,
Chairman.
GEORGE M. CLAYBERG,
Principal of Wm. McKinley High School, Chicago.
CLARENCE E. COMSTOCK,
Assistant Professor of Mathematics, Bradley
Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PHYSICS.

[This definition of the unit in Physics is offered as a substitute for the definition published in the Report for 1902.]

To the North Central Asociation of Secondary Schools and Colleges:

Your committee, appointed April 2d, 1903, to suggest a laboratory programme for a one year's course in physics in secondary schools begs leave to report as follows:

We submit three groups of experiments, practically all of which are described in the better grade of laboratory manuals.

The first group includes six experiments which we have called "Preliminary," and which it may be hoped will shortly find place in the mathematical, rather than the physical, programme, on the ground that experiments of this kind involve geometrical rather than physical ideas.

The second group, which we have called "Required," includes forty experiments for which the ordinary secondary school might reasonably be expected to be equipped. This group is intended to represent also the college entrance requirement where one unit of physics is offered.

The third group, which we have called "Optional," includes thirty-five experiments which the better grade of high schools will be able to combine with the "Required" list to form a year's programme. It is believed that this "optional" group will serve also as a list from which teachers may make selections to replace certain exercises in the "required" group for which they are not equipped or which they do not think suited to their work.

PRELIMINARY GROUP. (SIX EXPERIMENTS.)

1. Use of metric rule; comparison of lengths.
2. Determination of pi by measurement.
3. Balance and burette.
4. Verniered caliper.
5. Micrometer caliper.
6. Curve plotting.

REQUIRED GROUP. (FORTY EXPERIMENTS.)

MECHANICS.

7. Hooke's Law by Jolly's balance.
8. Hooke's Law by bending.
9. Hooke's Law by torsion.
10. Composition of parallel forces.
11. Levers.
12. Pulleys and forces at various angles.
13. Simple crane.
14. Pendulum—law of length.
15. Inclined plane.
16. Horizontal pendulum; variation of period and force.
17. Longitudinal vibrations in springs; variation of period with load.
18. Sliding friction.

MECHANICS OF FLUIDS.

19. Boyle's Law.
20. Archimedes' Principle.
21. Specific gravity, substances less dense than water.
22. Specific gravity, substances more dense than water; Jolly balance.
23. Specific gravity of liquids by sinker; Jolly balance.

SOUND.

24. Wave length by resonance.
25. Phenomena of interference.

HEAT.

26. Change of volume with temperature: qualitative.
27. Fixed points of thermometer.
28. Coefficient of linear expansion—solids.
29. Coefficient of expansion of air under constant pressure.
30. Specific heat of solids; method of mixtures.
31. Latent heat of fusion of ice.

MAGNETISM.

32-33. Fundamental phenomena of magnetism—two experiments.
34. Map of magnetic field—compass, iron filings, etc.

ELECTROSTATICS.

35. Fundamental phenomena of electrostatics, electrification by friction, etc.

ELECTRIC CURRENTS.

36. Study of simple Voltaic cell.
37. Action of current on magnetic needle.
38. Action of magnet on current—D'Arsonval galvanometer.
39. Battery grouping.
40. Verification of Ohm's Law.
41. A study of induced currents.
42. Comparison of E. M. F. in cells by Ohm's Law.

LIGHT.

43. Fundamental phenomena in optics.
44. Plane mirrors.

45. Curved mirrors.
46. Study of a converging lens.

OPTIONAL GROUP. (THIRTY-FIVE EXPERIMENTS.)

MECHANICS.

47. To make a vernier caliper.
48. Barometer—verniered.
49. The chemical balance.
50. Specific gravity, bottle method.
51. The slide rule.
52. Three non-parallel forces.
53. Study of moments of force.
54. Influence of weight of arm on lever.
55. Study of the siphon.
56. Specific gravity by balancing of columns.
57. Open and closed manometers.
58. Qualitative experiment on surface tension.
59. Quantitative experiment on surface tension.

WAVES.

60. Waves in the surface of water—wave trough.
61-62. Waves in stretched strings.

SOUND.

63. Sonometer work.
64. Velocity of sound in solids—Kundt's tube.

HEAT.

65. Latent heat of vaporization of water.
66. Melting points of solids.
67. Temperature of mixtures, introductory.
68. Change of vapor pressure with temperature.
69. Change of boiling point with pressure.

MAGNETISM.

70. Exploration of magnetic field with Jolly balance.

ELECTRICITY.

71. Electrolysis.
72. Effect of resistance on current in circuit.
73. Slide wire bridge.
74. Effect of temperature on resistance.
75. Heating effect of an electric current.

LIGHT.

76. Index of refraction—air to glass.
77. Model of telescope and microscope.
78. Measurement of angle and refractive index of prism.
79. Magnifying power of telescope.
80. Phenomena of interference—two slits.
81. Fundamental phenomena in spectrum analysis.

In conclusion your committee hardly dares to close its report without an expression of its belief that the importance of teaching a pupil *how* to think rather than *what* to think is so great that the differences between various programmes become matters of insignificance.

At the same time, we recognize that the first step towards an effective equipment, as well as towards a good year's work, is a well selected and logically arranged list of exercises.

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY CREW,

Professor of Physics, Northwestern University, Chairman.

C. F. ADAMS,

High School, Detroit, Mich.

CHARLES H. SMITH,

Hyde Park High School, Chicago.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON BOTANY.

[This definition of the unit in Botany is offered as a substitute for the definition published in the Report for 1902.]

It is undesirable that the course in Botany should be given earlier than the second year (10th grade), but whenever given it is indispensable that the teacher should adapt the work carefully to the development of the pupils. Inasmuch as Botany is likely to be one of the first sciences studied it is of the utmost importance that the pupil should be guarded against hasty inferences and sweeping generalizations from insufficient data. No experiment should be conducted by him which is not checked by a control, and whenever possible the conditions should be such that only one variable factor marks the difference between the test and the control. Inasmuch as both the simple and the compound microscope must be used he should be shown how to use both to the best advantage. The simple microscope is much neglected. The compound microscope brings an entirely new set of experiences to the pupil and he needs to be taught how to interpret what he sees. When sections of larger objects are furnished him, the teacher should take care that he understands the position of the section with reference to the object from which it was cut. He should be taught by practice to interpret and combine sections so as to obtain a conception in three dimensions of structures seen in two. Drawing, and especially the making of clear diagrams, should be insisted upon, avoiding undue detail and repetition which consumes time but illustrates no new structure or form. Well-made diagrams, with details carefully drawn in certain parts, are much more

profitable than the most elaborate drawings without correct ideas behind them.

It is not contemplated that the student shall obtain a knowledge of Botany as a science, but that he shall know what plants are, how they work, and how they are related to the external world and to other living things. The objects to be kept in view should be: first, to impart to a student through his own observation and reading a conception of the extent and variety of the plant kingdom, relating the groups to one another by a thread of evolution; second, a conception of the ways in which plants "live and move and have their being," by exhibiting them as mechanisms with parts, each doing its own work, and all working together harmoniously because they are sensitive to changes in the surrounding world and because they have power to adapt themselves thereto; third, a conception of the social relations of plants to other plants and to animals, and of the way in which their distribution is determined by all the agents acting upon them. To the laboratory and field work there should be devoted not less than two, and preferably three, double periods per week. It should be accompanied by assigned readings in one or more modern texts, and quizzes, for which two or three single periods per week are needed. When only single periods are given to the course, it should be discretionary with colleges to accept such work as one-half unit.

The general aims and methods of botanical teaching are well set forth in Ganong's "Teaching Botanist," which is commended to the attention of teachers of botany. The teacher who is adequately prepared will be the best judge of the materials and the methods by which in his own school the foregoing objects can be attained. The following suggestions are made as an indication of the amount and character of the work desired. They disregard questions of order. It is especially desirable,

for instance, that physiological and ecological work be taken up in connection with the study of the anatomy of the organs with which they are most intimately associated, or with the organisms exhibiting certain relations best; *e. g.*, sterilization and the economic relations of fungi should be presented when the fungi are under examination.

The synoptical view of the great natural groups of plants should be based upon a study of the structure, reproduction, and adaptations of types from each group. Where living material is not available, preserved material may be used. The evolutionary history of the great groups should be presented as far as it is known. Evolutionary principles may also be illustrated in a study of floral development. The alternation of generations should be traced from its clear development in bryophytes and pteridophytes backward to the hints of it among the algae and forward to its almost complete disappearance among the angiosperms. In the pteridophytes attention should be devoted to heterospory and to the consequent development of the seed habit in gymnosperms and angiosperms.

In general the simplicity of the lowest plants requires only brief study, and progressively more should be given to the higher and more conspicuous forms, until in the angiosperms detailed study is made of the various organs, and their functions. The following types are suggested, but should be changed to suit local conditions:

ALGAE: Pleurococcus, Nostoc, Spirogyra, Cladophora, Vaucheria, Fucus, Nemalion or Polysiphonia or Coleochæte.

FUNGI: Bacteria, Mucor, Yeast, Puccinia or a powdery mildew, Mushroom.

LICHENS: Physcia or Parmelia.

BRYOPHYTES: (Hepaticæ) Radula or Porella or Marchantia; (Musci) Mnium or Funaria or Polytrichum.

PTERIODPHYTES: Aspidium or equivalent, including the prothallus.

GYMNOSPERMS: Pinus.

ANGIOSPERMS: A monocotyledon and a dicotyledon. Examination of the structure and function of the following parts in any convenient species.

The seed: Three types (dicotyledon, one without and one with endosperm, and a monocotyledon); structure and homologous parts. Food supply, experimental determination of its nature. Phenomena of germination and growth of embryo into a seedling (including escape from the seed coats and development of parts).

The shoot: Gross anatomy of a foliage shoot, including the relationships of position of leaf, stem (and root), the arrangement of leaves and buds on the stem, and deviations (through light adjustment, etc.) from symmetry. Buds, and the mode of origin of new leaf and stem; winter buds in particular. Annual growth; shedding of bark and leaves.

Specialized shoots, including the flower. Comparative study of the parts and their functions in six or more different types, such as the ranunculaceous, cruciferous, leguminous, convolvulaceous, labrate, composite, liliaceous, and gramineous types. In connection with the study of the flower students should be shown how to discover the names of unknown plants by use of analytic keys and descriptive floras. In general they should be introduced to unknown plants by name.

The root: Gross anatomy and general structure of a typical root; position and origin of secondary roots; hair-zone; cap and growing point.

Specialized roots of various sorts.

The fruit: Comparative study of several types of fruit (dry capsule, legume, nut) and fleshy (pome, berry, drupe, etc.), especially with reference to changes from the flower, and from ovule to seeds.

In connection with the study of anatomy the following physiological topics should be presented:

Rôle of water in the plant: Absorption (osmosis), path of transfer, transpiration, turgidity and its mechanical value, plasmolysis.

Phytosynthesis: Dependence of starch formation upon chlorophyll, light and carbon dioxid; evolution of oxygen.

Respiration: Necessity of oxygen for growth, evolution of carbon dioxid.

Digestion: Action of diastase on starch and of lipase on fats.

Irritability: Geotropism, heliotropism, etc.; nature of stimulus and response.

Growth: Localization and rate in higher plants.

The following ecological topics should receive attention either in connection with the foregoing laboratory work or in special field excursions, for which students should be furnished as careful directions as for laboratory work.

Adaptations of parts for special functions.

Dissemination.

Cross-pollination.

Light relations of green tissues; leaf mosaics.

Plant societies: Mesophytes, hydrophytes, halophytes, xerophytes, climbers, epiphytes, parasites and saprophytes. Plant associations and zonal distribution.

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C. H. ROBISON,
High School, Oak Park, Ill.
H. S. PEPORN,
Lake View High School, Chicago.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

[This definition of the unit in physical geography is offered as a substitute for the definition published in the report for 1902.]

The following outline includes only the most essential facts and principles of physical geography, which must be studied in the class room and laboratory:

THE EARTH AS A GLOBE.

Shape of earth: How proved; probable causes of.

Size: How measured.

Rotation: How proved; day and night; longitude and time; latitude.

Revolution: How proved; rate; path; direction.

Seasons and their causes.

Magnetism: Compass; variation in.

Map projection explained.

THE LAND.

Distribution.

Graphic representation of topography.

Changes in land areas and in land forms: Effects of (1) elevation and depression, of (2) deposition of sediments, (3) of shore erosion.

Plains:

Plains distinguished from the plateaus and mountains.
Kinds of plains: classification based on genesis, on topography, on fertility, etc.
Development of plains of different forms.
Distribution of the great plains of the earth.
The coastal plain of the Atlantic and Gulf coasts.
The plains of the eastern interior.
The plains of the western interior.
Effect of climate and rock structure on topography of plains.
Alluvial plains: their formation and importance.
Relation of life to different forms of plains.

Plateaus:

Relations to plains and to mountains.
Stages in the history of a plateau: young plateaus, dissected plateaus, old plateaus, broken plateaus.
Effect of climate, rock structure, etc., on topography of plateaus.
Locations of the great plateaus.
Life conditions on plateaus.

Mountains:

Classes: block mountains; folded mountains; domed mountains; massive mountains; mountains of circumdenudation.
History of mountains.
Effects of climate, rock structure, etc., on mountain topography.
Life conditions in mountains.

Volcanoes:

Distribution.
Phenomena of eruptions.
History of a volcano.
Influence of volcanoes on topography and life.

Rivers:

Life history of a river from birth to old age.
The work of rivers.
The topography of surfaces shaped by river erosion at different stages of valley development.
Revived rivers.
Drowned rivers and valleys.
The great drainage basins of the United States.

Lakes:

The distribution of lakes, particularly in North America.
The changes which they are undergoing.
Their relations to rivers.
Their effect on climate.
Their relations to life in general.
Salt lakes; their history.
The origin of lake basins.

Glaciers:

The nature of glacier ice.
The distribution of glaciers.
The conditions necessary for glaciers.
Types of glaciers.
The work of glaciers.
Glaciated areas compared and contrasted with areas which have not been affected by ice; especially the glaciated and non-glaciated areas of North America.

THE ATMOSPHERE.

Composition and offices of atmosphere.
Instruments used in study of atmosphere.

Temperature:

Source of atmospheric heat, and variations of atmospheric temperatures.
Isothermal charts of world, and of the United States, especially the January, July and annual charts, with special study of (1) isotherms of northern and southern hemispheres, (2) location of heat equator, (3) cold pole, (4) crowded isotherms, etc.

Pressure:

Measurement of pressure.
Determination of altitudes by atmospheric pressure.
Relation to temperature
Study of isobars on U. S. weather maps.
Distribution of pressure in general, in mid-winter (January), and in mid-summer (July).
Relation of pressure (isobars) and temperature (isotherms).

Circulation of atmosphere:

Winds; their causes; their classes; and their effects.

Moisture:

Sources.
Conditions for precipitation.

Forms of precipitation; rain and snow; dew and frost; distribution of rain and snow; principles governing.

Relation of precipitation to life.

Storms:

Cyclones of temperate and tropical latitudes.

Paths and characters of storms of United States.

Relation of storms to general weather conditions.

Weather at different seasons; study and construction of weather maps.

Relation of weather to climate.

Relation of climate, weather, etc., to life and to human industries.

THE OCEAN.

Form, divisions and general characteristics of the oceans, and of ocean basins.

Depth, density and temperature of ocean waters.

Characteristics of ocean floor; topography, material, etc.

The life of the oceans.

Movement of ocean waters:

Waves; cause and effect.

Currents; causes and their proofs; important currents; effects of currents on climate, life, etc.

Tides; character of motion; causes of tides; variation of tides, and their causes; bores; effect of tides on navigation, harbors, etc.

Work of ocean:

Erosion and deposition.

Shore lines; the leading types, and their distribution.

Influence of harbors and coast lines, now and in the past.

Summary.

The outline given can but enumerate the larger topics to be covered, and in a way suggest the point of view desired. Each topic should be treated so as to show its casual relations to other topics. So far as possible, the effects of earth features on life (especially human life) conditions should be emphasized.

Throughout the work an effort should be made to develop the student's ability to use the data presented. The acquisition of the facts presented in the text-books is in itself of relatively little value. The student should be taught to apply, out-of-doors and in the laboratory, the principles developed in the class room. When he can do this, and when he can utilize and combine the data presented in the

books in new ways and to new ends, one of the chief aims of the study will have been accomplished.

The candidate's preparation should include:

a. The study of one of the leading secondary text-books in physical geography, for the sake of essential principles, and of well-selected facts illustrating those principles.

b. Individual laboratory work should occupy from one-fourth to one-half of the time of the student in the class-room. Field trips should take the place of some of the laboratory work in autumn and spring. The results of laboratory work should be carefully recorded in writing, and in many cases should be made the basis of class-room discussion. Similarly the field work should be made the basis of written reports or of subsequent class-room discussion, or both. In general the laboratory and the field should be made to afford illustrations of as many principles and phenomena as possible.

ROLLIN D. SALISBURY,
Professor of Geographic Geology, Chicago, Chairman.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

North Central Association

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Held at
Chicago, Illinois, March 25 and 26, 1904.

EDITED BY

JOSEPH VILLIERS DENNEY
SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

COLUMBUS, OHIO
PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
1904

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Copies of the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. J. E. Armstrong, Englewood High School, Chicago. The price of single copies is twenty-five cents. The price of the complete set as far as published (ten numbers, including the report of the Preliminary Meeting for Organization) is $2.25.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in Chicago, Friday, March 31, and Saturday, April 1, 1905.

The North Central Association

OF

Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Ninth Annual Meeting, Chicago, March 25 and 26, 1904.

The ninth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, March 25 and 26, 1904.

First Session, Friday, March 25, 1904.

The Association was called to order at 10 o'clock a. m. in the Banqueting Hall of the Auditorium Hotel by the President, Andrew S. Draper, University of Illinois, Champaign.

President Draper delivered the annual address, as follows:

GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

PRESIDENT ANDREW S. DRAPER, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

Our American universities are not like and are not to be like the universities of other lands. In considerable measure they have responded, and doubtless they will respond in larger measure, to the national character and thought. This is not saying that they

have not much to learn from the universities of other lands: it is only saying that they are to promote the higher learning in line with American ideals, and not to fix educational values on the basis of age, or copy the features of old world institutions without discrimination. An American university is not to exist in isolation. Americans do not believe in insularity, or self-containedness of any kind; they do believe in mixing, and in co-operation. An American university is to attract the multitude, and aid to the limit of its powers all who are able to use the facilities which it commands. The only limitation upon this is imposed by that natural regard which a university must have for all other educational instrumentalities, and the need of orderliness in an educational system.

The business of an American university is to sustain democratic institutions and stand for the security and the opportunity of every citizen. It is not to teach without striving to advance the outposts of learning; it is not to potter over "research" without teaching. It is to inspire students and teach effectually; it is to combat ignorance, whether stolid or capricious, or conceited; it is to unlock new truth. It will do more of each if all are done in the same room, and through the same man. It is to develop a constituency, so that it will have standing and strength, and it is to serve the public. It is not only to make language more expressive, literature more enticing, and history more real, but it is also to make lands more productive, machinery more effective, and the life and thought of the crowd more rational and true. If it is supported by taxation, as so many prominent American universities now are, it must

be tolerant of democratic management, and it will quite possibly find that there are more advantages than disadvantages in it. If endowed by private benefactions, it must execute the purposes of the benefactors. But it must give way to neither democratic nor aristocratic ignorance. Learning and devotion would have the right to outrank money in determining the policies of a university if there should be serious conflict between them. But there is so little, it is not in the reckoning. There is no room for narrowness, or bigotry, in one of our universities, and toleration and public spirit are all that are needed to win the support of the masses, or the special favor of men who have grown broadminded and generous through the business experiences which have amassed a liberal fortune. Universities are growing great where the management stands for American ideals in living, in thinking, in doing, and commands the services of great teachers who keep in trend with the national life and gain the respect of liberal souls who are charged with the care of liberal means.

But when the factors which may go to make up a university have been brought together in one place they must be related together in a way which will assure order and generate energy. Rules of action must be observed to the end that learning may have the largest opportunity at every point of the system, and the departments must be so balanced that the whole will recognize the most vital demands of learning in its quarter of the earth, and give the largest support to all the details of the common undertaking.

It is an agreeable fiction, resulting likely from the exclusive life of the old-fashioned universities, that the organization of a university is wholly free from

outside connections. The university is a world by itself. There is not a little satisfaction in this. It ministers to the conceits, from which even these heaven-endowed institutions are not yet wholly free, to sit in a board, or a council, or a senate, and feel that its votes settle the affairs of the world. It makes little matter if the world is not a large one; so long as it is just about large enough to tax the resources of its engineers, they have superlative satisfaction in running it. Of course, ruthless need will force the necessity of opening up connections with the outside now and then, but nothing short of a dead break between the factors of government, or a student revolution, is sufficient to menace the independence, or the serenity, of a university world.

The authority which is decisive in a university is that of the board of trustees. In an institution privately endowed this board is practically self-perpetuating; in one supported by taxation it has little to say about the succession. Each system has its advantages. It reminds one of Emerson's observation that government by the aristocracy is like the ship which rides the sea in safety and comfort to all on board until she strikes a rock, when she goes down with all hands, but government by a democracy is like a raft, it never sinks, but your feet are wet a good deal of the time. It is often more difficult to assimilate a freshman trustee than a thousand freshman students. But trustee or student must assimilate; he cannot make the institution over; other people do not move out because he came. When he has really learned so much as that he becomes useful, and influential, and has a most enjoyable time.

A trustee is not to teach; he is not to supervise teachers; above all he is not to intrigue with teachers. He is to get revenues, and cause them to accomplish the purposes of the people who provide them. His functions are legislative, and not executive, or supervisory. Boards legislate; individuals execute.

The correct principle has, I think, been laid down by the Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois in a University Statute as follows:

"The functions of the Trustees are legislative and not executive. The Board is to secure, as far as possible, the needed revenues for the University and is to determine the ways in which University funds shall be applied. It is to map out University policy, but it must, of necessity, leave the execution of that policy to its executive agents. Such agents must be capable and, within the general line of policy laid down by the Board, they should not be interfered with. It is no function of a Trustee to act as superintendent of University business, and it would be most reprehensible in a Trustee to have secret meetings and understandings with members of the Faculty, other employes or students, or to act in any way calculated to undermine or weaken the authority of its authorized agents. Such conduct would be subversive of all discipline and destroy the efficiency of the University organization. If the University does not prosper under the agents employed there should be a change of agents, but while in office the fullest confidence and support must be given them by the Board to enable them to obtain the best results. Any other course would not only be detrimental to the interests of the University, but would be a gross injustice to those employed."

The officer with the broadest powers and the largest opportunities is the president. Modern educational conditions have uplifted the successful college president as modern economic conditions have developed the captains of industry. He gets both the most commendation and the most abuse. President Seth Low is reported to have said that it is the function of a college president to give and receive pain. That is true, but it is not all. It is his function also

to develop and impress men and women. His office is encompassed with great perplexities, and he will suffer more than he can tell, but if he is true and just, and able to see things in a correct perspective, he will be upheld, and things will prosper, and students will multiply and grow strong, and out of it all will come satisfaction which none can describe.

The functions of a university president, as I conceive them, are also set forth in a Statute of the University of Illinois as follows:

"The President of the University is the chief executive and responsible agent of the Trustees. He is to have constant watch and care over every University interest, and particularly the fullest responsibility in the instructional work. He is to be ready to recommend suitable persons for vacancies in the Faculty and, in case of an exigency, he is to fill a place so that the work of the University shall not be interrupted. He is to see that members of the Faculty are competent and right spirited, and he is to hold all to the exact and full discharge of their duties; and if, in his judgment, the necessity arises, he is to initiate steps for a change of instructors. He is to attend the meetings of the Trustees and take part in the discussion of matters under consideration. He is, of course, to follow the directions of the Board given in any particular matter; but it is neither possible nor desirable for the Trustees to direct most of the details of executive action; and so, in all matters, the President is expected to act with perfect freedom within the lines of general policy laid down by the Board, following a custom which has been commenced here, is usual in all large universities, and is imperative to secure their strong and healthy development."

In 1876 the Board of Trustees of Johns Hopkins University set forth the duties of the president as follows:

"The President of the University is the authorized means of communication between the Board and the various officers of instruction and administration employed in the University; it shall be his duty to consult with the Professors, in respect to the development of their various departments, and the general interests of the University; to determine the appropriate duties of the Associates and Fellows; and to exercise such superintendence over the

buildings, apparatus, books, and other property as will insure their protection and appropriate use. In respect to these matters and all others which concern the welfare of the University, he shall consult frequently with the Executive Committee, and he shall attend the meetings of the Board of Trustees. Purchases, alterations, repairs, and other incidental expenses must not be ordered by any of the officers of the University without his previous assent, or the expressed authority of the Board."

If the board is not to execute and supervise, the president is not to legislate. He may, he must, submit matter in proper form for legislation, but the board is to be as free in its sphere as he is in his, and he must accept what is done. It is not fair to make him responsible for getting money. If that has to be done, some one else should do it. But there are at least four things he will be charged with: He will have to see that the instruction steadily broadens, that it is balanced, and that it is virile and sane. He will have to secure a reasonable measure of unity and harmony. He will have to see that the property of the university improves in physical condition, and grows in extent. And he will have to make sure that the expenses are within the revenues, and the balance on the right side. Even then he must not suppose he will be forgiven many of the shortcomings which he shares with all the rest of the world; and above all things he must never fall short in his stock of politeness and graciousness. He must find comfort in the reflection that if it taxes him on earth it refines him for heaven; it only fairly compensates the world for the unusual satisfaction his success brings to him. If he fails of success he won't be taxed so much, and he won't gain so much.

The principle that bodies are to legislate and individuals supervise and execute applies as much to the faculty as to the trustees. Confusion about it has

produced more trouble and inefficiency than anything else I know of. If a board of trustees will make weaker appointments than a president, and will never remove a teacher for anything short of immorality, because in the board responsibility is divided, while the president knows that his own standing and the virility of his university depends upon his own discrimination and forcefulness, it is also true that a university faculty which is toying with questions of administration, and matters of discipline, is only standing squarely in the road of unity, of effectiveness, and of growth.

The main business of teachers is to teach; the main business of investigators is to search; and I am inclined to think that the teaching will be better, and the searching more successful, if these businesses are mixed. But in a large institution they do not mix well with executive functions, or disciplinary procedures. They are entirely consistent with legislative action concerning educational policies, and the experienced men and women in a university may, in a body, well discuss educational questions in their broadest aspect, and have a very influential voice in determining the educational policies of their institution. Indeed, it may be accepted at once that the general educational policies of a university must command the approbation of the people in the faculties, or there will not be effectiveness in carrying them out, and the way to secure that approbation and effectiveness is to vest in the faculties the largest influence in settling those policies.

University effectiveness rests upon departmental effectiveness. Department effectiveness turns upon the man at the head of the department. Each de-

partment must be given autonomy of its own, with resources and freedom to work out its success, or prove the inadequacy of the professor in charge. An Administration is fatally wrong-headed if it does not give heads of departments very freely, and all others in its service as freely as it may, the materials to work with, and the freedom to use them just as rapidly, and a trifle more so, as capacity for safe and sound management shows itself. The measure of support to be given to each department is always a live and troublesome one in administration. On general principles the development of a university should be harmonious, but it may very well reflect the special interests of its constituents, if there are such, and it may quite as well excel in the lines upon which it finds that it has the most effective men. It is wholly sound to sustain, without absolute regard to the importance of subjects, the men who succeed roundly, without whining or claptrap, more liberally than the men who get on indifferently.

Doubtless every university hears the unceasing demand for less teaching, and more time for research, from its faculties. It is the searching for new truth which quickens the pulse beats of a university. Where genuineness is apparent, and the discovery of a grain of new truth seems even among the remote possibilities, ample time must be given for it. But it may as well be said that the time allowed for discovery and the writing of books, is often so great as to be terribly expensive in proportion to the product, and sometimes the demand for research is, without the culprit knowing it, only a cover for physical and constitutional lassitude. The best teachers are likely to be the best searchers. The results in research are

hardly likely to come from those who make the loudest claim for exemption from ordinary university duty. It is hardly fair that a whole university shall be taxed to afford time for research unless the lines of investigation which are being pursued are defined and understood. There must be some measure of accountability for time on the part of the worker, or there cannot be much sympathy with him and his work on the part of all who have some share in supporting and managing the institution. And without this there is something wrong. People who lack strength, or adaptation, for research are too many and too urgent in American universities, and there must be some regulation of the matter in the interest of the smaller number who lack neither strength nor productivity in the field of advanced learning. It is a problem about which there is much sentiment, but one of which sound administration should not be afraid.

There is much misguided talk of the need of time for self-improvement among the people in universities. It is one of the things which is to proceed without talking about it. Of course, one who is not striving for self-improvement is not in the running at all. It must come, however, not from leisure, but from work. One who is now growing rich in the stores of his mind and heart through the influence of severe work upon himself and who, with his work, does not find time for relaxation and pleasure, intellectual and otherwise, is not in the university reckoning.

Perhaps the most gratifying development in recent university administration is a more rational management of students. It used to be assumed that the administration monopolized the right to establish

rules of conduct on very venerable lines and to do all the thinking for students. Of course, it stirred resentments, with ground enough for foothold, and such student resentments soon mature into excesses and revolution. The giving over of the right of complete direction has narrowed the gulf and enlarged the companionship between faculties and students; and it has been accompanied by more healthful and therefore nobler ideals of character. The sense of self-responsibility has, as it seems to me, noticeably advanced in the student bodies of the larger universities in recent years. We have been going through a transition stage upon this most important matter; we are not through yet; some have had grave misgivings, but it has come to be reasonably clear that we are coming out all right.

The one thing everyone in a university demands is freedom. There can be no sound administration without administrative freedom. The executive cannot be strong if he will submit to wire-pulling. There can be no virile teaching without academic freedom. A university teacher who will subordinate his thinking and teaching to sinister influences is worthless. Where everybody in the management exacts entire freedom, the students, who are men and women grown, will not be without it. And student freedom is vital to normal and healthful student growth. But administrative freedom does not include the right to be unjust; the executive must use his freedom wisely, or pay a swift and severe penalty. Teaching freedom does not cover the privilege of talking to the public more than to the students, and on top of that to insist on talking like a fool. Nor does student freedom mean that one may go to the dogs without let or hin-

drance. All university freedom is to be exercised sanely, and with good purposes, or the place must cease to be a university.

The nation is to be congratulated upon the fact that the lines in American universities are setting for character quite as much as for scholarship. German university ideals are being repudiated, as must be the case in this country. As the students have multiplied, and as more freedom has been accorded them there has been less lecturing and disciplining of the whole body for the sake of reaching a few, and the instrumentalities for safeguarding the few who stand most in need have been increased very effectually. Deans of Undergraduates are doing more to hold the frail ones up to their college work, and to privately admonish them against the temptations which thrive in college towns than was ever dreamed of under the old system of making everybody attend chapel and look dolorous. The hopelessly idle, or vicious, are being sent out of American universities more than ever before in the history of education.

The results are salutary, not only educationally, but religiously. There is a stronger religious life in freedom than under constraint. It is not only stronger, but more widespread. A larger percentage of students develop genuine, more healthful and prolific, religious feelings where they are left in some measure to themselves in an atmosphere which encourages, than where everything is cut and dried for them through the hard and fast rules and preaching of an administration. Boys would rather be worked with, or left to work out things themselves, than everlastingly be preached at. Reason would suggest it, and ample experience proves it.

Student government is a broken reed. If actual it is capricious, impulsive, and unreliable; if not, it is a subterfuge and pretense. It deceives no one, least of all the students. They see through grindstones quite as soon as older people do. Above all things they want to know just about what may be counted upon. When they find out, if it is reasonable, and right, they will square themselves with it. This has nothing to do with the plane of honor in a university. Other things fix that. And it is not established by rule, or settled in a day.

Much would be gained in university administration if teachers could learn that students are likely to judge teachers quite as quickly and accurately as teachers judge students. There are more students than teachers; they see the teacher at every angle, and they compare notes; they have full information, and their combined judgment is generally accurate. They will have treatment which intends to be fair and just, or they will make trouble, and they ought to. They will not tolerate emptiness, or stand bossiness, without resentments which they will make effectual, for they know that these things have no place in a university. They will not suffer the loss of substantial rights which seem small to the world, but mean much to them, unless they are taken away in due process by a tribunal which acts judicially and commands respect. Above all they will not be coddled by cake and ice cream. They abhor, and it is one of the strongest forces in university administration, the sneak, of whatever rank, who would sell out righteousness and the government of a university for student favor. So far as the students are concerned university management will go along smoothly enough after

the students have tried out their men, and it has become settled that no one is going to be fooled, that freedom is going to be accorded, that decency and manliness are going to be upheld, that there will be no fear in sending out of a university any who are there by mistake, and that whatever is done will be done with real interest in legitimate student affairs, with ready acceptance of the overwhelming trend of modern life, and always with gentleness, steadiness, firmness, and justice.

Government in an American university falls short if it does not exemplify the very best ideals of government in our democratic life. It must be strong enough to govern, and with no uncertainty about it. The corner stone of efficiency is absolute justice where rights are at stake, and relative justice, or the sanest wisdom, where rival interests, or policies, are involved. It is to sympathize with the aspirations of every human soul, it must give every one his free chance, and it must help every force which makes for the uplifting of the mass. It must stand for culture, not at second hand, but at first hand, through work, and it must know that the meanest things in all the world are selfishness and conceit covered by the forms of polite society. It must not only uphold learning; it must sustain courage also. It must stand for things, and against other things. It must not only unlock truth, but it must also combat error. It must of course, stand for freedom in the board of trustees, in the executive, in the faculty, and among the students, but just as much it must drive license out of every nook and corner, or there is small hope. And it had better measure license in different places with yard sticks which are somewhere near the same length.

A student who hazes his fellow, or goes to excess over an athletic victory, deserves discipline for it; but a trustee who demands a place for his son, a president whose favor turns upon favoritism or prejudice, and a teacher who runs to the newspapers for notoriety, or scoffs at things many people revere, is entitled to nothing short of a fight. A university is a place where freedom abounds, but a university is an institution which has something to do. It is not to drift; it is to do. It must take its freedom in its hand with a firm grip, and go out to meet its responsibilities with confidence and cheerfulness. It must not separate itself from the world; it must get into the very heart of things. It must bind together in a sympathetic whole all who believe in learning and in labor, and it must be a positive and aggressive force for quickening every good purpose and uplifting human society. It cannot accomplish this by chance, or by confused aimlessness. It may accomplish it through a sane and sympathetic outlook, through a government which has fiber and purpose about it, which stands for truth and scientific accuracy, which can marshall men and women, which can bring forces together, and then use them generously, yet modestly, for the good of all.

The Treasurer of the Association, Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School, Chicago, submitted his report as follows:

REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 25, 1904.

RECEIPTS.

Cash on hand at date of last report	$28 58	
Received from ninety-one memberships	273 00	
Received from sale of reports and blanks	35 50	
Total		$337 08

DISBURSEMENTS.

Expenses of President Jordan	$22 80	
Stenographer at last meeting	36 80	
Stationery and postage	8 27	
Expenses of the Secretary	34 56	
Telegrams	1 75	
Express and cartage	4 78	
Exchange on drafts	40	
Overcharge to Iowa College	6 00	
Printing Annual Proceedings and Blanks	200 00	
Total		$315 36
Cash on hand		$21 72

RESOURCES.

Blanks delivered to various colleges	$8 75	
Cash balance	21 72	
Total	$30 47	

LIABILITIES.

Richmond & Backus Co., balance on printing	$72 00	
Expenses of members of Executive Committee	100 00	
Total		$172 00
Present indebtedness		$141 53

JAMES E. ARMSTRONG, *Treasurer.*

The President then appointed the following committees:

(1) To recommend the time and place of the next meeting of the Association: President J. R. Kirk, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; Prof. C. A. Waldo, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; Principal E. W. Coy, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.

(2) To nominate officers: Director G. N. Carman, Lewis Institute, Chicago; Principal E. V. Robinson, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.; Inspector A. S. Whitney, University of Michigan.

(3) To audit the Treasurer's report: Inspector J. F. Brown, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City; Prof. J. A. James, Northwestern University, Evanston; Principal F. L. Bliss, Detroit University School.

President Homer H. Seerley, State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa, then read the following paper:

THE ADVISABILITY OF GIVING CREDIT FOR WORK DONE OUTSIDE OF THE REGULAR COURSES.

PRESIDENT HOMER H. SEERLEY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA.

The Conditions that Exist: The discussion proposed by the topic assigned is compassed with difficulties and confounded with contradictions in both the work of the secondary school and the college. The practice of the present day is to classify the studies found in the schools so as to designate the entrance requirements for the college, thus determining the curriculum of the secondary school by giving specific value to certain lines of study and by repudiating as unessential certain other lines of study. The adoption of the credit system by the college has led to its transfer to the secondary schools as the college statements as to entrance requirements are uniformly put into the language and the style of that system.

The entire credit system is a development in modern educational administration as a result of many contests and compromises. It is not practiced according to any system of principles that are constant or uniform in deciding educational values and its operation is not free from unreasonable inconsistencies or irreconcilable interpretations as those in authority

work out the problem according to their own pleasure or power. It seems strange and unprogressive that the college entrance requirements are indifferent regarding capability in public speaking, in reading and interpreting music, in the comprehension and the execution of thought in drawing, or in the acquiring of a good physical development by a systematic thorough course in physical training. It seems even more strange and unprogressive for the college to place no value at all upon such accomplishments and acquirements so far as the completion of a college course of study is concerned. It does seem that the credit system should be so modified that there is place for such activities and acquirements in both the secondary school and the college and such a place that it all can count in the making of a liberal education. The causes for these conditions depend upon results that are stronger in their influence in determining policies and customs than are even the opinions of faculties of instruction or the judgment of administrative officers.

The College of the Past Generation: There has been a remarkable evolution in the methods of management used in educational work during the past forty years, a change that has been notable for the increase of the power of system and the enlargement of the scope of institutions through expansion. The student of forty years ago found a college course to consist of four years' work of three terms each. He planned to be a resident member of the college for the entire four years and to devote himself to the curriculum given. It was necessary for him to have three studies a term to each of which was given five hours a week. He might undertake four studies per term

if he could satisfy the faculty that his natural ability, physical endurance and personal characteristics as a student made it possible, but such a favor did not hasten the day of his graduation or give him credit for more than the classmate who pursued three studies a term. The record given for the work by the faculty decided rank in class but gave no other privileges. These were the days when the literary society flourished, when debating, essay writing and all kinds of public speaking were regarded as an essential part of the course of study, public sentiment being that the college man without the cultivation of these gifts lacked true practical value and full development. So it was with regard to membership on the editorial staff of the school paper, with membership in the glee club and the choral society, and with interest in the systems and forms of physical training then practiced; all of these accomplishments were regarded as the things for every student to undertake if he had special capability, opportunity or interest, since efficiency in these lines of work and success in these respects were among the leading honors attainable by a college student. It is needless to say that such activities stood on a par with the formal class work, the definite duties of the laboratory and the instruction of the lecture, which are to-day the only essentials for college preferment.

The Advent of the Credit System: But with the expansion of the program of studies that came with the admission of many new branches to the curriculum of the schools, the old equilibrium was disturbed, the struggle for supremacy became intense, the demand for recognition from the sciences, the political studies, and multitudes of new lines became law, the

problem of creating new degrees to differentiate education was confusing and as a natural result of chaos and controversy, the old system yielded to the inevitable and the credit system with opportunity for elective courses was substituted. This condition brought many peculiar problems, marvelous impossibilities in management and an unsettled status that is yet to-day in existence. The elective system was the origin of the doctrine of the equivalence of studies, of the plan of definite determination of the number of hours of work required for graduation, of the abolition of the examination as a satisfactory test for a credit and of the abandonment of the time factor in a course of study. With the gradual growth of the elective system it has been decreed that no study should become a credit that is not pursued at least a year, that certain studies must be treated as majors and certain as minors, endeavoring by the intricacies of system to protect a student from the abuses of the plan. To carry out in good faith the method of management, the daily program of work has been spread over all the hours of the day and is recently getting into the night, while Saturday has become a work day. The old time daily program of a generation ago consolidated a student's time and conserved his energy and effort.

He had an equal amount of study and recitation for each of his five days of college work and he had abundant time for these outside things without encroaching upon his other college duties. The present day program has made the several days' work of the student very unequal and has also increased the difficulty to do his best work, as his time, energy and application are dissipated and wasted by a scattering

policy that compels him to devote himself exclusively to his credit work and decline attention to every other thing that does not count in the summary of hours that must be secured. Another growing result of the elective credit system is the manifest encouragement that is thus given to seek to shorten the years of attendance and there is as a consequence a large increase in the number of students who complete the required credits in the prescribed courses in three years. Such students are obliged to stay strictly by their credit work, even if they are compelled to forfeit some of the known essentials of a liberal education, and while they are generally classified as being exceptionally promising as men of affairs, such recognition of the bare essentials has had the influence of emphasizing the alleged superior value of the credit subjects and of compelling the neglect of other work which is also highly important to the coming career of a college man or woman because such branches are not given any allowance upon the table of credits.

The Demand for Recognition and Acceptance: Now it is certainly a fact that such studies and training as literary society work gave in public speaking, reading and debating in the former college curriculum, such work and development as came from serious undertakings through the school periodicals, such musical taste and culture as came from the study of the great masters in the choral society or the glee club, such physical training and development as came from the early efforts in physical education, were of a character and a value that modern educational organization can hardly afford to repudiate them or reject their value as not a real part of modern civilization, — such training as the college man and

woman can well afford to add to his regular requirements. Even the large expenditures that are now being made in the erection of superior buildings for physical education indicate that health, physique, development and strength should be a possible part of the education of a modern individual. The requiring of one year of such instruction and training, without a distinct credit or a perfect recognition as to value, discredits the work as below par in the approved system of education and training which has in mind a career of large usefulness and power. However, as long as the present rejection of the claims of these special lines continues that long will there be little real development and progress in their specially useful fields of training and culture.

A Plea for Right Conditions: I recognize that there is a popularity and an authority on the athletic field in most of the higher institutions of learning, and also in many secondary schools that is more real and powerful than the victories of the lecture hall, the laboratory or the forum. I recognize that the management of these activities is not very creditable to education, as they should be classified as secondary in educational accomplishments, but these few experts who surrender much to the development of their physique are not the ones whom this paper seeks to benefit, but the great body of students who lack the elements of physical and personal character that a proper bodily training rightly directed can give. I recognize that the English departments of both secondary school and college are quite generally endeavoring to develop certain types of language training under the supervision of the professors and their assistants, but after all it is not possible through the

lecture of the professor, the criticism of the theme reader, the exactions of the "quiz" and the "exam" united with the personal endeavor of the student, to thus secure a fair substitute for the inspiration, the competition and the training in thinking that is a natural result of participation in the work of a well organized and well conducted literary society. There are few influences in college or in preparatory school that have such a large part in perfecting the power or the skill in thinking of a developing mind. I recognize the change that the college fraternity with its expensive social life has brought, but this recent force as a factor is no actual substitute for the poise, self-command and mastery of capability that the literary society so decidedly gave. I recognize that the athlete and the expertly trained specialist of extraordinary accomplishments is the type of physical training that exists to-day in the place of the multitude of moderate workers for physical betterment that our civilization needs. The demand is for a physique, a physical condition, a nerve power and a poise that does not develop the rare athletic but the universal man and woman who is specially fitted to do the world's work. I recognize that the tendency is to exalt the musical specialist who can do great things in his art, but it is the man and woman of strong brain and of balanced culture who appreciate the beautiful in music and can join in its public and private uses to his own happiness as a human being and to his own usefulness to civilization and society, a type of character specially desirable to be sought.

The Evident Conclusion: Finally it must be conceded without much controversy that the credit system is too strong in its machinery and too adaptable

in its service to present needs in modern education to enable any reorganization or modification to be possible. Its evils and shortcomings can only be partly met by readjustment and by the opening of the entire fields of opportunity and culture. It is specially popular and acceptable because it does away with the exact time limit to a course of study and seems to recognize variability in mentality and application. But after all it does seem reasonable to ask that special literary work of all kinds, special labor in editorial duties on the college and school periodicals, special capability and accomplishments in music, art and physical training should be given an equivalent chance with the vast multitude of nameless and indescribable courses that are to-day classified as among the factors that are worthy of being a part in a truly liberal education. The question at issue is thus raised for fair consideration, the conditions and requirements are thus partially outlined and set forth, the problem with all its difficulties must be solved by intelligence, sincerity and reasonableness. Education should be adapted to man and not man adapted to education.

President Seerley's paper was discussed by President Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Principal Henry L. Boltwood, High School, Evanston, Ill.; President Charles F. Thwing, Western Reserve University, Cleveland; and Director G. N. Carman, Lewis Institute, Chicago.

PRESIDENT SABIN:

The exactions of college requirements leave no time for other valuable lines of culture that contribute much to one's pleasure in life. I speak especially for girls in the college fitting schools. In the Seminary

Department of Milwaukee-Downer College we have introduced a literary course which does not fit for college. It includes English, Latin, French or German, History, a Science, and sufficient elective work to make fifteen units. This permits the election of Music, Art and Domestic Science. I feel that for those who do not go to college this course is the best. Some colleges restrict the freedom of secondary schools by requiring that four studies shall be pursued in the fourth year. This practically prescribes the studies of each year of the secondary schools. I believe that both in elementary and in secondary schools there should be opportunity for choice of work to a proper degree.

PRINCIPAL BOLTWOOD:

It would be impossible, in my opinion, to measure up the proper credits to be given to work which involves no special intellectual training and whose results will not, except very remotely, affect the work which is required for admission to college. Drawing and Manual Training, for example, are of no special use in a classical or literary course.

DIRECTOR CARMAN:

While recognizing fully the value to the student of other means of activity than those for which credit is usually given towards meeting the requirements for graduation, I am impressed with the difficulty of discovering a means of rating these values, that will not seriously impair the good they do the student. One of the chief advantages of the student enterprises referred to in President Seerley's paper arises from the fact that they are voluntary and spontaneous, and are not looked upon as a means of making credits.

Principal E. L. Harris, of the Central High School,

Cleveland, Ohio, then read the report of the Committee on Athletics, as follows:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS.

Your committee, last year, made a partial report, especially pertaining to the secondary schools, and asked for more time in order to take up more thoroughly the question of college athletics.

Section 3, part 2, of the report of 1903 should be amended to read as follows: "He must have been such a student at least four weeks before such contest unless he entered the school during the first three weeks of the school year."

At the last meeting of this association certain evil tendencies in college athletics were pointed out and certain untried remedies were advocated. One member of the committee in a paper before you urged the endowment of college athletics, thus freeing students from contact with an unhealthy and unnatural business atmosphere. Progress in this direction has been made during the year.

A paper by another member of this committee took the ground that further and adequate modification and reformation of existing methods are practicable. These remedies may be introduced gradually, but when once in force they will certainly lead to a sound, sensible and wholly healthful form of college athletics.

The paper took the ground that athletics properly controlled and directed, is a desirable, probably a necessary, part of a symmetrical college life, and grouped its recommendations under eight heads:

1. Absolute business publicity.

2. A worthy record of achievement.

3. A year's residence before participation, with proof of scholastic ability and sincerity.

4. Repudiation of recruiting agencies.

5. Graduate and amateur coaching without pay.

6. Partial disarmament.

7. Smaller admission fees.

8. Student organizations to foster strict amateurism.

Absolute business publicity and a worthy record must come if at all by the action of natural groups of institutions undertaking a periodical publication such as an annual would suggest.

The idea of a probationary year twice or thrice applied has taken a strong hold upon the minds and imaginations of educators who sympathize keenly with the young life about them. With the earnest co-operation of those who see clearly and know intimately, we can at least hope for its gradual adoption.

Briefly, the third point means that every student in every reputable educational institution whether secondary or collegiate, must remain in the school or college or university of his choice, for a year, and must sustain himself in his studies and pass in his examinations before he can be a candidate for membership on any interscholastic or any intercollegiate team.

A rule of this kind would have in the athletics of our institutions certain necessary tendencies which are apparent to all after a little consideration.

1. For instance it would not prevent a freshman from engaging in class athletics nor in athletic and gymnastic training, but it would keep him for a sea-

son from participation in that particularly strenuous form known as interscholastic or intercollegiate athletics.

2. It would show the new man that education is the business and athletics the incident of school or college life.

3. It would give the conscientious physical director an opportunity to develop and fortify the physique of the promising young athlete before the latter enters competitions whose terrific and premature strain might easily warp and twist him both intellectually and physically.

4. Organizations would tend to die out whose sole business it is to *induce* young men to choose certain institutions. Clubs of business men or of alumni would hesitate to invest their money in the support of promising material if they knew that the support must extend over one or two years before the material would be available and that even then love's labor as well as money might at any time be lost by an innate inability on the part of the material to pass examinations.

5. It would establish the control of the secondary schools over their teams and save them from the disturbing defection of the would-be collegiate "sooner."

6. It would discourage the ringer at the beginning of his college course and tend to eliminate the semi-professional athletic element of the graduate school because the graduate student, if his four years have not been exhausted, as well as the freshman, would have to wait a year and sustain himself in his new relation for that length of time before he could be a candidate for an athletic team.

If, to the rule operative in the case of migration, there should still be added the provision that the three probationary years, namely, at the beginnings of the secondary, collegiate, and graduate periods, must be observed in the case of every student whether his whole student life was passed in one, two or more institutions, the result would be profound and lasting.

This universal triple probationary year would be easy of application, would simplify the code of rules, would restore rationality and sober-mindedness to the whole athletic world.

In the annual meeting of the Chicago Conference Nine, one college strongly urged the adoption of the entrance and graduate college probationary periods. The presentation and discussion made a deep impression upon the Conference representatives and it is now under consideration throughout and beyond conference territory. This is great progress. Let us help it along.

The State Teachers' Association of Nebraska has formally endorsed this proposition. The recent action in the Chicago schools under the leadership of Superintendent Cooley, lacks little of the introduction of a secondary probationary year and it would be immensely strengthened by the general adoption of such a rule.

There are not wanting indications among our college faculties that the rule would be widely and almost universally welcomed. If once they could be persuaded that it would free our intercollegiate relations of nine-tenths of their controversies and our teams of nine-tenths of their athletic scandals, as your committee steadfastly believe, the allegiance of

college instructors to the principles here defended would be complete.

In order to place data before you of the very great expense attending college athletics your committee sent a letter of inquiry to eleven colleges. Answers have been received from seven of these institutions. We submit to you a tabulated statement of the receipts and expenses of these colleges:

RECEIPTS.

College	Football	Baseball	Track	Other Sources	Total
Harvard	$59,108 11	$16,312 81	$5,278 74	$15,390 54	$96,090 20
Yale	56,440 71	23,807 57	3,633 76	8,829 84	92,711 88
Penna. ..	47,810 99	6,214 05	3,981 52	9,923 70	67,930 26
Mich. ...	*38,080 28	2,497 95	1,958 20	9,010 82	51,547 25
Chicago .	47,688 99	2,601 88	2,803 50	26 80	53,121 17
Minn. ...	43,259 08	.....	393 02	725 01	44,377 11
Calif'nia	19,395 55	475 30	373 50	1,409 71	21,654 06
Nebr'ska	10,600 20	1,461 70	159 90	338 60	12,560 40

* Net

EXPENSES.

	Football	Baseball	Track	Other Expen's	Total
Harvard	$16,509 00	$11,864 65	$7,790 41	$36,324 45	$72,488 51
Yale	28,471 80	14,712 04	9,746 35	38,767 32	91,697 51
Penna. ...	22,093 99	7,223 37	9,977 08	25,483 12	64,787 56
Mich. ...	13,953 77	3,156 18	2,095 52	6,021 90	25,227 37
Chicago .	39,080 04	3,216 30	4,859 92	3,206 34	50,362 60
Minn. ...	37,035 30	.....	.....	2,152 63	39,187 93
Calif'rnia	15,256 14	614 99	148 98	2,855 80	18,875 91
Nebr'ska	11,918 46	1,680 51	473 76	373 88	14,450 61

BALANCE.

	Profit	Deficit
Harvard	$23,601 69	.....
Yale	1,014 37	.....
Pennsylvania	3,142 70	.....
Michigan	26,319 88	.....
Chicago	2,758 57	.....
Minnesota	5,189 18	.....
California	2,778 15	.....
Nebraska	.....	$1,890 21

These figures from only a few of the colleges of this country seem to justify this Association in making recommendations to regulate the finances of the college athletics and to have them controlled by responsible parties with direct supervision by the faculties.

In keeping with the above, we present the following resolutions:

1. *Resolved,* That this Association earnestly recommends the general adoption of three probationary years in athletics:

(*a*) One year at the beginning of the secondary period.

(*b*) One year at the beginning of the collegiate period.

(*c*) One year at the beginning of the graduate period.

2. *Resolved,* That in case a student migrates during any one of the three periods mentioned above, he shall remain in his new institution one year before participation in any contest.

3. *Resolved,* That natural groups of institutions having athletic relations with each other should publish annuals giving first: business publicity; second, permanent athletic records.

4. *Resolved,* That the members of this Association pledge themselves to use their influence with State Teachers' Associations and State College Associations and other educational organizations, including Faculties of universities, colleges and secondary schools to secure their support in bringing about the adoption of these resolutions, especially the first.

5. *Resolved,* That this Committee be empowered to act with other college and secondary associations

east and west, to secure the adoption of the three probationary year principle.

EDWARD L. HARRIS,
C. A. WALDO,
A. A. STAGG,
C. M. WOODWARD,
J. E. ARMSTRONG.

The report was discussed by Principal E. V. Robinson, of Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.; Prof. C. A. Waldo, Purdue University; President Richard D. Harlan, Lake Forest University; Dean C. M. Woodward, Washington University; Superintendent E. G. Cooley, Chicago; President Charles S. Howe, Case School, Cleveland, Ohio; Principal W. J. S. Bryan, High School, St. Louis; Dean T. F. Holgate, Northwestern University; and Prof. A. A. Stagg, University of Chicago.

PRINCIPAL ROBINSON:

This question of pure athletics is the burning question in the high schools. The universities admit by subterranean methods fellows of athletic powers who are not good sophomores in high school. The universities must first be cleaned up. They are the source whence corruption permeates the secondary schools.

PROFESSOR WALDO:

The report of this committee and the resolutions attached are very important to the college life of the institutions of this section. We know that the faculties of our institutions are right on the subject of athletics, and they are in the main correct upon all other questions of policy submitted to them in the exigencies of college administration. The trouble about our athletics is, that the faculty cannot control

the situation with our rules as they now stand. We know that one eastern institution through its athletic committee has acknowledged this fact, and has proposed as a remedy that it shall no longer take into consideration the question of professionalism or amateurism for admission to its intercollegiate teams. We know also that this position was repudiated by the general faculty of this same institution and by the other institutions of New England. I have recently heard of an institution in the East, not the least prominent among them, either, which gave a young fellow a scholarship to induce him to come to play baseball, and after he had arrived upon the college grounds all of his other expenses were taken care of. At this same institution, I was credibly informed that another prominent player not only had his own expenses paid for playing ball, but also his whole family was supported. We know that young men of a certain class are now accepting remuneration when they join themselves to some institution of athletic prominence, and we know that these young men are not among the best scholars as a rule, nor are they the most desirable students. For example, here is a letter which came into my possession, the genuineness of which I can vouch for:

"————foot ball team

I thought I wold drop you all a fue lines a bout playing with you all this fall if the can a gree.

I played with ———— last fall and fall before last I met a fellow from that town and he sed he wonted me to get on you alls team this fall now if you all want me to play with you all I can if you all will give me a nuff to play for. I way too hundred and ate lbs I can play cinter are guard ether one

Well I will close hopeing to play with you all this fall Soe so long for this time. ancer sun as you can

We know, too, that organizations of business men and alumni are active in the work of inducing, and in other ways in preventing the true purpose of college athletics. Are not the propositions set forth in these resolutions reasonable, and are they not a long step towards correcting many serious evils which have crept into our college athletic life? Certainly if men must remain in any institution a whole year before they are eligible upon other intercollegiate teams, and if in addition to that, it is necessary for them to sustain themselves in their college work and to pass in all of the subjects they have pursued during that year, we may rest confident that nine-tenths of the trouble which so frequently scandalizes our college athletics would be entirely done away with.

PRESIDENT HARLAN:

So far as I understand the regulations proposed by the committee, I am heartily in favor of their general principles. Radical remedies are needed to counteract that spirit of professionalism which is poisoning our school and college athletics, and of which the letter read by Professor Waldo is so startling a symptom. Last summer I received a letter from a certain high school graduate which is a worthy mate of the one just read. In it, the would-be college matriculant, after telling me what a distinguished football and baseball player he had been in his high school, and what inducements he had already received from certain large universities, closed by saying that before deciding he would "like to know what Lake Forest had to offer!"

I was but a new member in the guild of college presidents, but I confess that the letter revealed what

to me was an utterly novel attitude toward the institutions of higher education on the part of graduates of our secondary schools, and it showed me how far some of the men connected, at least unofficially, with certain of our institutions had gone in the ignoble scramble for students. Our universities and colleges are actually being asked to bid against each other for the athletic heroes of the high schools, and here was a college president being written to personally as to what his institution had "to offer!" This particular youngster did not wish to take his athletic prowess elsewhere without giving Lake Forest a fair chance to put in her offer. I wrote him that as far as Lake Forest was concerned we could offer him an opportunity for various excellent courses along the lines of general culture, amid most wholesome and attractive surroundings, and that I would be very glad to give him any information as to details; but there my letter stopped. The young man evidently was not attracted by my offer, and I never heard from him again.

Now, the proposed regulation requiring one year's residence at the beginning of each of the three stages of higher education, would go far toward eradicating this phase of professionalism; for if the goods could not be delivered until after one year's residence, the temptation to "offer inducements" to these high school athletes, or to steal athletes from other colleges and universities would be reduced to the vanishing point.

One other feature of the proposed regulation appeals to me very strongly: I refer to the rule which forbids the student in the graduate or professional schools from playing in any inter-collegiate games during his first year in such schools. Under this

rule it would no longer be possible for the veteran college player to come back in the autumn for post-graduate work with football as an incidental (of course), and after Thanksgiving to change his mind, give up his plan for further education, and go into business. Those who entered the professional or graduate schools would always do so for serious purposes; and if they could not play football or baseball during the first year of their post-graduate or professional study, the chances are that they would not play at all. And, after all, is not that the goal toward which we ought all to be working? Ought not intercollegiate contests be confined to under-graduates? Has the student of law or medicine any real place in college athletics?

Then, too, the tendency of these rules will be to bring athletics to a more normal and properly subordinate position in our school and college life. We have much to learn of our English cousins in this matter of sport. The English school boy and university man take their sports more rationally, more sanely, than we do. They go into their sports for all they are worth, *at the time;* but they do not make a business of it, as we do, with our vacation practice before the opening of the season, and our elaborate training tables, and numerous "coaches." With them the game is the thing, and not the victory; it is sport for sport's sake, and the victory is merely the incident. That to me is the only attitude that is proper for any one who would aspire to the proud title of being a gentleman and a scholar.

In my judgment these rules will help mightily toward relieving us of much of that unwholesome stimulus which produces the professional spirit and

the over-keen ambition on the part of our educational institutions to win championships. They will bring about the truer attitude toward sports and put athletics in the proper and subordinate place which they should occupy in our school, college and university life.

DEAN WOODWARD:

If the Association adopts the rules proposed, the members should fully realize their responsibilities in the matter. When we go home to our respective faculties and lay the rules before them we shall find them generally in favor, but the shoe will pinch when it comes to individual cases. Individual cases test the integrity of a faculty. I regret the fact that I believe that members of faculties are as much to blame for the evils of athletic management as students. I shall always prefer for managers, instructors, and assistants, regular salaried members of faculties, to sporting men for coaches. I actually doubt the benefit of volunteer graduates as coaches. I fear they are too often idle men, in easy circumstances, given to sport and the deplorable habit of betting on games. In the last Harvard Graduates' Magazine is given "a partial list" of such graduate coaches containing twenty-one full names, as though in recognition of praiseworthy service to the cause of athletics. When President Eliot speaks of the lack of "success" in Harvard football, he, I fancy, has no thought of the issue of games, but of the relatively small number of students who find pleasure and health in actually playing football, and in the low moral atmosphere which surrounds the public games. Last year I pleaded for the endowment of Departments of Physical Culture, and the abolition of gate receipts, and I plead for the same to-day.

SUPERINTENDENT COOLEY:

The high schools are suffering greatly from over-enthusiasm of the students for athletics, and it has become exceedingly difficult to secure the proper recognition of the academic work of the schools on account of their eagerness to participate in the athletic contests. The spirit of rivalry between the schools is so strong that the boys do everything in their power to get in good material, regardless of its fitness for the other purposes of the school. We have occasionally to suspend teams and discipline individuals for breaking of the rules. The effort in the schools has been to require reasonable academic proficiency on the part of candidates for athletic honors. The standard set up by the schools is higher than that set by the colleges for contests given on their grounds by our young high school fellows. The result has been considerable demoralization.

As long as the universities are engaged in proselyting for promising young players in the high schools and elsewhere and showing an utter disregard of the other purposes for which colleges and secondary schools are instituted, it is exceedingly difficult for the high schools to enforce their ideal. We have had a good deal of trouble with the colleges in our immediate vicinity, no less than five young fellows from our high schools having been taken into one of the great college teams, although they had never completed more than three-quarters of the work for graduation in the Chicago high schools. The effect of this was to incite the young high school students to do the same thing and to get husky young fellows, who had left the grammar schools years ago, to enter the high schools merely for the sake of athletics. The

protest made by the school authorities of Chicago to the colleges recently was made in the hope that a better condition of things might be brought about by united action of colleges and secondary schools, and it affords me great pleasure to hear the recommendations made here, and I sincerely hope that they will pass.

There has been some talk about setting aside a fund, the proceeds of which would be used for putting athletics on its feet — a fund that would enable the college authorities to encourage young men along the lines of athletic proficiency. My complaint is that there is too great attention and inducement offered to that sort of students now. All sorts of opportunities for work are offered to young people — not on account of their ability to do the customary work of the colleges, but because of their ability to advance the ball on the field. Purses are raised, work is created, and all sorts of devices are made use of to enable these young men to exist while they play out the season. The effect upon the attitude of the students toward general scholarship is exceedingly disastrous. Anything like a genuine amateur spirit is impossible under such conditions.

If the rules that are now before this association can be adopted and lived up to, a better state of things is bound to prevail, and our high schools and colleges will serve the purpose for which they were founded and for which they are supported. If the present condition of things goes on without check we shall certainly, so far as the public is concerned, lose their support and confidence, and disaster is ahead.

PRESIDENT HOWE:

I heartily agree with the greater part, if not all,

of the report of the committee on athletics, but it seems to me that to adopt this motion will be to bury the report. Passing resolutions here does not help athletics; no one present has any power to enforce these rules. In order to be effective they must be adopted by the faculties of the several institutions represented and unless they are so adopted they will be a dead letter. I would therefore suggest, that instead of adopting this report, we have copies sent to the several institutions, ask them to discuss it thoroughly and notify the committee of their decision in regard to it.

PROFESSOR STAGG:

As a member of this committee I would like to speak briefly in favor of the adoption of the report. Anyone who has closely observed athletics in the secondary schools, colleges and universities, during the last decade, or who has been practically identified with them, cannot fail to feel the tremendous pressure which is brought to bear on athletic managers to stretch their consciences and the rules for the sake of winning. The elements of American character are of such kind and the desire for success is so intense, that it becomes a matter of great temptation to use illegitimate and unsportsmanlike means to win out.

In view of these facts it is well that we hedge about our athletes and athletic managements, so that there will be fewer loop holes for athletic misdoing. The plan suggested by the committee I believe strengthens the fences very much, and is the best move which can be made to improve our athletic situation.

On motion, the report of the committee on athletics was adopted.

The President then appointed Principal W. J. S. Bryan, Central High School, St. Louis, to membership in the Committee on Athletics, in place of Principal Ballou.

President Thwing then presented the report of the Commission on Accredited Schools, concerning requirements for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts.

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF ARTS.

In recent years the usages of colleges and universities have much modified the requirements of the degree of A. B. Formerly it signified that the holder of it had completed a four years' course of study, which included work in Mathematics, Latin and Greek. Graduates, on whom this degree had been conferred, might have pursued courses differing in other respects. But a certain amount of the three branches named above was an indispensable requisite for the attainment of the degree. The letters A. B. attached to one's name came to have a historic and pretty definite significance.

Therefore there was long a justifiable reluctance to confer that degree on any one who had not completed the traditional course. Other degrees were conferred on graduates, who pursued some different course. And a superior value was attached to the A. B. in comparison with other bachelors' degrees.

For some years many believed that no one college was justified alone in changing the significance of the A. B. by giving it to students who had not sub-

stantially complied with the old requirements. But great changes have now taken place in most colleges and in the value assigned to different courses. Since the large development of the teaching of science and history and the modern languages in all our stronger colleges, the opinion has become wide-spread, perhaps one may say very general, that the courses which do not carry the ancient classics may have so nearly the same disciplinary and educational worth as the classical courses that they do not deserve to be marked with an inferior badge. Furthermore, so many reputable institutions have decided to award the degree of A. B. for the completion of non-classical courses, that the argument drawn from historic and general usage has lost its force.

In view of these considerations it seems proper to let the requirements of the degree A. B. indicate the completion of any under graduate course, thorough and sufficiently prolonged, in a college or university of good and reputable standing. Such a usage bids fair to become pretty general in this country, and, we think, with good reason.

JAMES B. ANGELL,
CYRUS NORTHROP,
JAMES H. BAKER,
CHARLES F. THWING.

Second Session, Friday Afternoon.

The Association was called to order at 2:30 o'clock p. m. by President Draper. Inspector A. S. Whitney, University of Michigan, presented the Report of the Commission on a List of Accredited Schools, as follows:

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF INSPECTORS FOR 1903-1904.

Your Board of Inspectors desires to report that in December, 1903, it sent out a circular letter to all the colleges and universities belonging to the North Central Association, informing them of the instructions, aims and methods of this Board, and inviting hearty co-operation. Very cordial letters were received in reply from a number of the institutions, promising aid and sympathy, and suggesting sources whence the desired information might be more accessibly obtained. Pursuant to this notice a meeting of the Board of Inspectors was called at Auditorium Hotel, Tuesday afternoon at two o'clock and a meeting of the other inspectors Wednesday morning at nine o'clock, to present and consider lists of schools for recommendation to your Commission in accordance with your instructions. The following inspectors were present: Miller, of University of Chicago; Bell, of University of Colorado; Brown, of the University of Iowa; Hollister of the Univer-

sity of Illinois; Boyd, of Ohio State University; Hill, of the University of Missouri; Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Aiton, State Inspector of Minnesota; Crabtree, of the University of Nebraska; Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin. There were no representatives from Indiana or Kansas.

In preparing the list of schools accompanying this report, your Board desires emphatically to state that it has followed in spirit and in letter the standards set by your Commission at its Cleveland meeting and modified at the Chicago meeting of last year, said standards being as follows:

"1. That the minimum scholastic attainment of all high school teachers be the equivalent of graduation from a college belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary schools, including special training in the subjects they teach, although such requirement shall not be construed as retroactive."

"2. Your committee advises that the number of daily periods of class-room instruction given by any one teacher should not exceed five, each to extend over a period of at least forty minutes in the clear."

"3. That the laboratory and library facilities be adequate to the needs of instruction in the subjects taught as outlined in the report of the Commission."

"4. That while the foregoing are exceedingly important factors affecting the quality of the work, the esprit de corps, the efficiency of the instruction, the acquired habits of thought and study, and the general intellectual and ethical tone of the school are of paramount importance, and therefore only schools which rank well in these particulars as evi-

denced by rigid, thorough-going, sympathetic inspection, should be considered eligible to the list."

Your Board further reports:

1. That it has refused to consider any school concerning which it has not had definite written or printed facts before it. All hearsay evidence, no matter from what source, has been unanimously rejected. Many eligible schools have been omitted because of lack of sufficient data.

2. That while the Commission has advised not to exceed five periods per day for each teacher, it has rejected absolutely all schools having more than six periods per day per teacher, making no exceptions.

3. That it has omitted all schools whose records show an abnormal number of pupils per teacher as based on enrollment, even though they might technically meet all other requirements. The Board recognizes thirty pupils per teacher as a maximum.

4. That it has omitted all schools that are on the "border land."

5. That for the present year it has omitted consideration of all schools whose teaching force consists of fewer than five teachers exclusive of the Superintendent.

6. That it has been very conservative, believing that such action would eventually work to the highest interests of both the schools and the Association. It has not attempted to make a large list; on the contrary, only those schools which possess organization, teaching force, standards of scholarship, equipment, esprit de corps, etc., of such character as would unhesitatingly commend them to any educator, college or university in the North Central territory, or in the entire country, are offered for your consideration.

The following constitutes the list by states:

COLORADO: Colorado Springs, Cripple Creek, Greeley, Kenyon City, La Junta, Leadville, Pueblo No. 1, Pueblo No. 20, Trinidad.

ILLINOIS: Aurora, East; Aurora, West; Bloomington; Chicago: Austin, Calumet, Englewood, Hyde Park, Jefferson, John Marshall, Joseph Medill, Lake, Lake View, North West Division, Robert Waller, South Chicago, South Division, William McKinley; Clyde, DeKalb, Dixon South, Elgin, Evanston, Harvey, Joliet, La Grange, Moline, Oak Park, Ottawa, Peoria, Pontiac, Princeton, Rockford, Rock Island, Sterling.

INDIANA: Fort Wayne, Frankfort, Howe Military School, Indianapolis Shortridge; Indianapolis Manual Training; Michigan City, Rensselear.

IOWA: Boone, Cedar Rapids, Council Bluffs, Davenport, West Des Moines, Fort Dodge, Grinnell, Le Mars, Marshalltown, Ottumwa, Sioux City.

MICHIGAN: Ann Arbor, Adrian, Alpena, Bay City, Battle Creek, Calumet, Coldwater; Detroit: Central, Eastern, Detroit University School, Detroit Home and Day School; Grand Haven, Grand Rapids, Hancock, Iron Mountain, Kalamazoo, Lansing, Menominee, Marquette, Muskegon, Mt. Clemens, Monroe, Marshall; Saginaw, West Side; St. Joseph; Saginaw, East Side; Traverse City, Ypsilanti.

MINNESOTA: Duluth; Minneapolis: Central, East Side; St. Paul: Central, Humboldt, Cleveland.

MISSOURI: Blees Military Academy, Columbia; Kansas City: Central, Manual Training, Westport; Kirkwood; St. Louis: Central, William McKinley, Washington University Training School.

NEBRASKA: Beatrice, Kearney, Lincoln Academy, Omaha.

OHIO: Akron; Ashtabula; Bellefontaine; Cleveland: Central, East; Coshocton, Dayton, Delaware, East Cleveland, East Liverpool, Elyria, Findlay, Glenville, Greenville, Marion, Mansfield, Mt. Vernon, Piqua, Sandusky, Newark, Toledo, Troy, Van Wert, Xenia, Youngstown, Zanesville.

WISCONSIN: Ashland, Chippewa, Eau Clair, Fort Atkinson; Milwaukee, East Division; Milwaukee, West Division; Milwaukee, South Division; Milwaukee-Downer Seminary, Oshkosh, Racine, Ryan, Janesville, Kenosha, La Cross, Marinette, Marshfield, Merrill, Sheboygan, Sparta, Stephens Point, Superior, Blaine; Superior, Nelson Dewey; Waukesha, Whitewater.

Your Board submits the following recommendations:

1. That the time for which schools be accredited be limited to one year, dating from the time of the adoption of the list by the North Central Association.

2. That the organ of communication between the accredited schools and the Secretary of the Commission, for purposes of distributing, collecting and filing the annual reports of such schools and for such other purposes as the Commission may direct, be as follows:

1. In states having such an official, the Inspector of Schools appointed by the State University. 2. In other states the Inspector of Schools appointed by state authority, or, if there be no such official, such person or persons as the Secretary of the Commission may select.

The above plan contemplates the making of but one annual report to the Commission by each school, said

report to be made directly to the state authority and by him transmitted to the Secretary of the Commission for permanent filing.

The above recommendation is made with the distinct understanding that it contemplates no limitation in the work of inspection as now carried on by any institution belonging to the North Central Association.

On the contrary, the Board of Inspectors cordially invites the judgment of all inspectors in making up the list of accredited schools.

Respectfully submitted,

A. S. WHITNEY,

Chairman of Board of Inspectors.

On motion the Report was adopted.

Secretary Carman, of the Commission, then read the minutes of the meeting of the Commission held March 24 and 25, as follows:

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The Commission met at 2 p. m. Thursday, March 24, 1904, at the Auditorium Hotel in Chicago, with Professor H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago, in the chair. The members present were Professor Joseph V. Denney, and Inspector W. W. Boyd, of the Ohio State University; Secretary G. M. Jones, of Oberlin College; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo; Principal Frederick L. Bliss, of the Detroit University School; Inspector H. A.

Hollister, of the University of Illinois; Professor H. E. Griffith, of Knox College; Professor W. R. Bridgman, of Lake Forest College; Principal C. W. French of the Hyde Park High School; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute; Professor H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago; Professor J. A. James, of Northwestern University; Inspector A. W. Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin; Inspector George B. Aiton, of Minnesota; Inspector J. F. Brown, of the State University of Iowa; President H. S. Seerley, of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls; President John R. Kirk, of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; Professor A. Ross Hill, University of Missouri; Inspector J. W. Crabtree, of the University of Nebraska; Professor Sanford Bell, of the University of Colorado.

Chairman Whitney, of the Board of Inspectors, submitted a report of the work of the Board and a partial list of schools entitled to the accredited relationship. The report as submitted was adopted by the Commission with the recommendation that it be printed by the Association. There was an informal discussion of the report and it was voted that when the Commission adjourns it should be with the understanding that it meets again on Friday morning at 9 o'clock to take action on such additional recommendations as the Board of Inspectors may submit.

It was voted that the Board of Inspectors be requested to file with the Secretary of the Commission the reports of the schools on the accredited list on which their recommendations were based.

The following resolution was presented by Professor Bridgman, of Lake Forest College, and adopted by the Commission:

Resolved, That the Universities and Colleges which are members of the Association be requested to print in their catalogues the Association's list of accredited schools, or such portion thereof as covers the schools within their territory.

The secretary read a letter from Professor Jacob Reighard, of the University of Michigan, Chairman of the Committee appointed to prepare a definition of the unit in Zoology in which it was suggested that the subject is in such a transition state that it would be well to wait a year before attempting revision. The recommendation of Professor Reighard was adopted.

Director Carman, Chairman of the Committee appointed to prepare definitons of units in Shopwork and Drawing, asked that time be given the committee for further investigation. The request was granted by the Commission.

The secretary then submitted to the Commission the report of the Committee that was appointed to prepare a definition of a unit in Physical Culture. It was voted that the report be printed as a part of the proceedings of the Commission. The Commission voted against the adoption of the recommendation of the Committee on Athletics, that one unit be given for physical culture in the graduation requirement of the High School and the entrance requirement of the College.

REPORT ON DEFINITION OF UNIT IN PHYSICAL CULTURE.

This report is rendered in accordance with the resolution adopted at the meeting of The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, held in Chicago, April 4, 1903.

The resolution:

"Although not strictly within the province of the committee, it wishes to add another recommendation. In order that more attention may be given to the great body of students who are not athletes, especially in our secondary schools, we recommend that in every school where there is a gymnasium and regular work of at least two (2) hours per week is assigned to pupils, a credit of one-fourth (¼) unit per year, i. e., one unit for the four years, be given towards graduation, even if one more unit be added to the amount required for graduation."

The plan of work suggested is for secondary schools only.

Granted that one unit be given for four years of gymnasium work, with a minimum of two hours per week, what should the unit represent, (a) in character of work done, (b) in the physical condition of the pupil at the end of the four years?

A. CHARACTER OF WORK.

The following plan is recommended:

For the First and Second Years.

First Quarter: Hygienic and Corrective Exercises.

Second Quarter: Corrective and Recreative Exercises.

Third Quarter: Corrective and Educative Exercises.

For the Third and Fourth Years.

First Quarter: Hygienic and Corrective Exercises.

Second Quarter: Corrective and Educative Exercises.

Third Quarter: Corrective and Competitive Exercises.

By "Hygienic Exercises" is meant that a group of exercises should be selected, *primarily,* for their regular body building effects. They should increase muscular size and strength without demanding a high degree of attention. They should be generally slow, informal, simple, and lack precision. They should exercise large groups of muscles sufficiently to affect the heart and lungs, equalize the circulation and stimulate digestion.

Type of Work—Slow running, free exercise, mat exercise, dumb-bell exercise, exercises with medicine ball, pulley-weights, etc.

By "Corrective Exercises" is meant that a group of exercises should be selected, *primarily* for their corrective and preventive influences. Such exercises as are adopted to counteract the defects brought on by school confinement and bad postures, as round shoulders, flat chest, drooping head, and spinal curvature.

Type of Work—Special free exercises, special exercises on apparatus or with machines.

By "Recreative Exercises" is meant that a group of exercises should be selected, *primarily,* for developing agility, breathing capacity and spontaneous action of mind and body. Exercises of this group are, perhaps the most effectual in renovating the vital energies and fitting the pupil to resume his studies.

Type of Work—Basket-ball, hand ball, all the tag games, etc.

By "Educative Exercises" is meant that a group of exercises should be selected, *primarily* because of their formal, exact and precise nature. Exercises that require a high degree of attention, delicate adjustment and co-ordination of many groups of mus-

cles. The special value of this group of exercises is the training of correct motor perceptions and ideas.

Type of Work—Indian club exercise, wand exercise, dancing steps, graded apparatus work, fencing, etc.

By "Competitive Exercises" is meant that a group of exercises should be selected, *primarily,* for the discipline of the power of speed, strength, skill and quickness for a complete summation at any given instant. Coolness under strain and pressure, self-reliance and good judgment will be secondary developments.

Type of Work—Short dash running, high jumping, hurdling, vaulting, rope climbing, etc.

The work of each quarter, and of each year, should be carried forward with a natural order of progression, all exercises being selected and taught with reference to their mechanical difficulty and physiological effects, so far as these factors are understood.

ORDER OF DIFFERENT GROUPS OF EXERCISES.

A group of Hygienic Exercises is recommended for the first quarter of each year because such a group seems best adapted to the needs of the pupil upon entering school. A comprehensive course of physical exercises should begin with such simple movements as are best calculated to introduce subsequent and more difficult work. Hygienic exercises serve as the first step in the progression of each year's work.

A group of Corrective Exercises is recommended for each quarter throughout the four years because of the tendency of the adolescent to succumb to bad bodily postures as a result of school confinement and

careless habits of standing, walking, and sitting. The erect carriage of the body, with well-rounded chest, square shoulders and properly curved spine, means much more than good looks. The erect figure indicates proper accommodation for the vital organs, hence the continued application of this group of exercises.

A group of Recreative Exercises is recommended for the second quarter of the first and second years to give balance and richness to the complete course. The preceding groups of exercises have become tiresome and the pupil needs play at this time. The weather has become inclement and out of door play has been reduced to the minimum.

A group of Educative Exercises is recommended for the last quarter of the first and second years and the second quarter of the third and fourth years. By means of the work of the preceding quarters the pupil has gained something of strength, good posture, and general condition and is now ready to put all these to use; hence the introduction of exercises of skill.

A group of Competitive Exercises is recommended for the last quarter of the third and fourth years. Previous work has prepared the pupil for tests of skill, quickness, strength, and coolness under pressure. All pupils delight in this character of work, but few are able to profit by it without having taken the work of previous groups, hence it occupies the last place in the course. For girls, substitute Recreative and Educative Exercises.

B. THE PHYSICAL CONDITION OF THE PUPIL AT THE END OF FOUR YEARS.

The pupil should be required to pass a physical and medical examination of such character as to indi-

cate that he or she is physically prepared to enter upon college work with assurance of profit, and assurance that the college will not waste both time and money upon a weakling.

The credit should be withheld from any pupil whose moral habits are known to be such as to indicate the probability of a low state of health during the freshman year in college.

In view of the fact that a pupil might receive the equivalent, or more than the minimum of two hours of exercises prescribed, as a member of an athletic team, as a member of a Y. M. C. A. gymnasium, or through manual labor, it is recommended that he be allowed to take the physical and medical examination, and if he pass successfully that he be given the gymnasium credit.

E. B. De Groot,
Lewis Institute;
J. E. Raycroft,
University of Chicago;
E. L. Harris,
Central High School, Cleveland, O.

The second meeting of the Commission was held Friday, March 25, at 9 A. M. Professor Judson presided, and the following members were present: Denney, Coy, Thwing, and Jones, of Ohio; Whitney, Hartwell, and Bliss, of Michigan; Hollister, Nightingale, James, French, Bridgman, Judson, and Carman, of Illinois; Tressler, of Wisconsin; Aiton, of Minnesota; Brown and Seerley, of Iowa; Kirk and Hill, of Missouri; Crabtree, of Nebraska.

Inspector Whitney submitted the completed list of accredited schools and other additions to the report

of the Board of Inspection, which were adopted by the Commission.

President Thwing presented the report of the committee appointed a year ago "to take into consideration the advisability of extending the work of the Commission so as to include accredited colleges and to determine what should be the requirements of the bachelor's degree." The report was discussed and accepted, and it was voted that the committee be continued with the view of covering more fully the question submitted to it by the Commission.

It was voted that Dr. Henry R. Hatfield, Chairman of the Committee on Definition of Commercial Subjects should report to the Association at the afternoon session.

The Commission adjourned to meet immediately after the adjournment of the Association.

The third meeting of the Commission was held Saturday, March 26, at 11:30 A. M. Professor Judson presided, and the following members were present: Denney, Thwing, Jones, and Harris, of Ohio; Whitney, Bliss, Scott, of Michigan; Hollister, French, Judson, Armstrong, Carman, of Illinois; Tressler, of Wisconsin; Brown and Seerley, of Iowa; Kirk and Hill, of Missouri.

Professor Judson was chosen Chairman of the Commission, and Director Carman Secretary.

It was voted that all official inspectors representing the states and institutions of the Association should hereafter constitute the Board of Inspectors.

The Commission adjourned to meet the day preceding the next meeting of the Association.

GEO. N. CARMAN,
Secretary of the Commission.

On motion, the Committees on Defining Units in Zoology, Shopwork, Drawing, and Physical Culture, were given further time for report.

Dean Henry R. Hatfield, College of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago, then presented a report on the subject of entrance credits in commercial subjects.

On motion, the report was approved, and the committee was continued in order to formulate the unit in final form.

Chairman Judson then addressed the Association on "The Outlook for the Commission," as follows:

THE OUTLOOK FOR THE COMMISSION.

DEAN HARRY PRATT JUDSON, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMISSION.

(Abstract of Address.)

The work of the Commission has now proceeded to the point where some are asking, What is left of importance for the Commission to accomplish? Two lines of effort seem to me to remain. First, the Commission must continue its effort year by year to strengthen the weak places in the system of accrediting schools. This we expect to realize through our Board of Inspectors, which is now fully organized to cover the territory of the Association, through a more accurate definition of existing units of study, and through the definition of new units as the need for these shall arise from time to time. Second, a new line of effort is suggested by a remark coming from a well-known secondary school man. He said: "The Commission has done a great work in leveling up the

secondary schools, in putting a premium on good work and in recognizing the value of inspection. Its attention should now be directed to the colleges. The high schools are being inspected and rated for the benefit of the colleges. Why should not the colleges be inspected and rated for the benefit of the secondary schools and their graduates who are looking for a higher education?" I confess, the proposition seems to me to be eminently fair. What is an approved college? Are there any studies or groups of studies that should be found in every good college and in every good college course? Is there a fixed amount of work which a college must require for graduation, and a determinable grade of work that a college must be capable of doing, in order to maintain its position as an approved or standard college? These important questions suggest a sufficiently large task for this or some future Commission to undertake.

The following communication from the College Entrance Examination Board was then read:

Professor J. V. Denney, Secretary,
North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio:

MY DEAR PROFESSOR DENNEY — At the annual meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board, held November 7, 1903, the Constitution of the Board was altered in several respects. I enclose herewith a copy of Article 1 of the Constitution as amended. It may be of interest to you in view of the fact that mention is made of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Faithfully yours,
THOMAS S. FISKE, *Secretary.*

[Article 1 of the Constitution, as amended, follows.—SECRETARY.]

The College Entrance Examination Board shall consist of the President, or an authorized representative of each participating college or university, and of representatives of secondary schools.

Any college or university in the United States, which has a freshman or entering class of not less than fifty students (courses

in arts and in sciences to be reckoned together for this purpose) may, by vote of this Board, be admitted to membership.

Representatives of the secondary schools shall be appointed in such manner as the Association choosing them may direct, by

The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools,

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland,

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States,

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,

and such other similar associations as may hereafter be recognized by the Board. Each association may appoint one secondary school representative for every three colleges and universities members of the Board and represented in such association, provided, however, that one representative may be appointed on the admission to this Board of one such college or university, and provided, further, that the number of secondary school representatives appointed by any one association shall in no case exceed five. Representatives of secondary schools may also be appointed directly by the Board to the number of five.

It was moved and seconded that the invitation be accepted and that representatives to the College Entrance Examination Board be appointed.

The motion was discussed by Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan; Principal E. V. Robinson, St. Paul; Principal E. W. Coy, Cincinnati; President Howe, Case School; President Harlan, Lake Forest; Director Carman; Inspector George B. Aiton, Minneapolis; Principal Henry L. Boltwood, Inspector J. F. Brown, The State University of Iowa; Dean Holgate, Northwestern University; Dean S. A. Forbes, University of Illinois; Inspector A. S. Whitney, University of Michigan and President Draper.

PRINCIPAL ROBINSON:

I hope the motion will be adopted. The western secondary schools have to do business with the east-

ern colleges, and we ought to have members on this Examination Board in order that we may exercise some influence in making the examination questions.

PRINCIPAL COY:

I do not favor any action by this Association that will look like an indorsement of the examination plan of admission to colleges. In my own High School at Cincinnati, I am compelled to give up a portion of each year to cramming certain seniors for the examinations of the several eastern colleges. The secondary schools ought not to be invaded by the colleges in this way. It is ruinous to the legitimate work of the school.

INSPECTOR AITON:

I am in favor of an exchange of courtesies. If they will accept our work in accrediting, we will accept their work in examining. But I am not in favor of placing representatives on this Board. I do not want to see this Association committed to an entrance examination system in this territory — particularly to a system calculated to railroad students eastward.

PRINCIPAL BOLTWOOD:

I favor the appointment of representatives on the ground that the preparatory schools are especially interested in seeing that the questions proposed for examination tests, by this College Entrance Examination Board, should be reasonable. The Entrance Examination Board acts as a clearing house, saves the necessity of multipled examinations, and the eastern colleges, with very few exceptions are more than willing to accept the certificates of preparatory

schools which have proved their standing by sending well fitted pupils.

INSPECTOR BROWN:

If the whole truth were known it would probably be found that the credit system has considerable support among the eastern colleges. I had occasion recently to ask several of these institutions that admit students both by examination and by certificate, how the college work of students admitted by examination compares with those admitted by certificate. In no case was the answer unfavorable to the certificate method, and in several cases a positive preference for it was expressed. However, a few of the eastern institutions still admit by examination only.

DIRECTOR CARMAN:

I am satisfied that we should accept the invitation and send representatives to the Board. We have co-operated in the matter of definitions of units. Further co-operation does not commit us to the examination method of admission to college, for colleges that admits students on certificates must still hold examinations for the benefit of students who do not come from accredited schools, and the more the colleges that accept the examinations of the Board, the better it will be for our schools.

PRESIDENT HARLAN:

Not only out of a spirit of courtesy to our eastern friends but because we should thereby be doing a real public service to our own constituency, we ought, in my judgment, to appoint certain of our number to act as advisory members of this examining board. It would be churlish to refuse to comply with such

a request, besides which is it so certain as some seem to think that we have nothing to learn from eastern educators, as to which is the better system, "Entrance Examinations" or "Admission on Certificate?" Personally I have a suspicion that the last word has not yet been spoken upon this subject.

Whether you look upon our representatives on that committee as missionaries, whose effort it would be to convert our eastern brethren to the accrediting system, or whether we should call them open-eyed investigators into the entrance examination methods, is not material. To my mind there is no necessity for guarding our action with any caveats or explanations. Let us appoint these men in accordance with the request and let our action stand upon its feet and speak for itself. Let our representatives assist in preparing these entrance examinations and make them as fair and as representative as possible for the sake of those among our own young people who expect to attend the eastern institutions; and let us through these representatives learn anything that is to be learned from the exponents of the examination method. We ought not to be too sure that we "know it all" in the West.

PRESIDENT HOWE:

I presume I am the only member of the College Entrance Examination Board present to-day. Case School of Applied Science is a member of this Board and I am its representative upon the Board. I would like to say that there is a college, belonging to this Association, which requires entrance examinations from all candidates to the freshman class and I cannot agree that there is no desire for en-

trance examinations among the members of this Association.

When one very well known high school sends 16 candidates to our examinations and 9 of them fail to pass, notwithstanding they would be allowed to enter with two conditions, I think it is possible to find some argument in favor of examinations; but this is not the question under discussion and I do not introduce this in a controversial spirit. The College Entrance Examination Board does not wish to force any college to give entrance examinations. Many of the colleges within its membership accept certificates from some students, but all of them require a part of the candidates for the freshman class to pass the entrance examinations.

In order to accommodate those who wish to take the examinations, whether a large or a small number the College Entrance Examination Board was formed. In the north-central states from which the members of this Association come, are many high schools sending students to eastern colleges. These students are obliged to take entrance examinations. Some of these students take the examinations set by this Board and it would seem advantageous to these students to have some teachers from this section represented upon the Board. I trust the courteous invitation of the Board will be accepted.

DEAN FORBES:

Our preference for the accredited school system of admission to college rests finally upon a view virtually common to all of us,I think, namely, that the principal of a high school is more competent to judge of the fitness of one of his graduates for college, after

four years of personal experience with him than is the examining officer of a college, who can know little or nothing of the candidate personally and who must judge of his acquisitions and accomplishments by the results of a few hours' writing under rather trying conditions.

Evidence of the comparative values of college work done by students entering college by the two competing systems is contained in the last report of the Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, according to which it appears that the 298 students who entered by examination received, during the year, a considerably larger relative number of conditions than did the 367 students entering on accredited school certificates.

DEAN JUDSON:

I approve accepting this invitation to co-operate with the College Entrance Examination Board. If, as has been suggested, the East needs missionaries from the West, this Association is about to begin the work under most promising circumstances, for this Association is sending to the East a missionary in the person of its presiding officer, who goes to take a position of great responsibility in the State of New York. I am sure that I speak the thought of all in the Association when I say that I feel deeply the loss of President Draper from the State of Illinois and from the North Central Association. His progressive ideas, his breadth of view, his fearless advocacy of whatever he holds to be right and just, and at the same time his genial personality, have endeared him to all of us. We rejoice in the large opportunities which are before him, and we bid him a hearty God-

speed in the new and large work to which he goes in the old home.

President Kirk moved to amend by adding the following words to the pending motion, "But in so doing we in no way express a desire to compromise with the examination system but retain confidence in the 'accrediting system.'" The amendment was adopted and the motion as thus amended was then adopted.

On motion, the selection of a representative to the College Entrance Examination Board was referred to the Executive Committee. [The Executive Committee, later, appointed Principal E. L. Harris, of the Central High School Cleveland, Ohio, to represent the Association in the College Entrance Examination Board.—SECRETARY.]

It was moved and seconded that the definitions of units in physics, botany, and physical geography printed in the last volume of proceedings, be adopted in place of the definitions printed in previous reports. The motion was adopted.

Dean Woodward, of the Washington University, St. Louis, then offered the following resolution:

Having adopted certain rules intended to eliminate some of the evils attending inter-scholastic and inter-collegiate athletics, it becomes us to take definite steps to secure a general adoption of said rules by local faculties.

To this end we recommend that the committee be authorized to have the new rules printed and distributed to every college, university and secondary school in the North Central States, with two requests in each case:

1. That the rules be brought before the faculty for adoption.

2. That the action of the faculty of whatever nature be at once reported to the Chairman of this committee, so that due progress may be made known to this Association next year.

Finally, we suggest that with a view to successful united action along these lines, it be declared the duty of every member of this Association to champion, to the best of his ability, the adoption and the faithful observance, of these rules by the local authorities.

The resolution was adopted.

The Secretary was ordered to print at the expense of the Association the report of the Board of Inspectors.

It was moved and seconded, as the sense of the Association, that all secondary schools on the accredited list of the Association be invited to become active members.

On motion, Article VIII of the Constitution was amended to read as follows: "The annual membership fee shall be $10.00 for each university, $5.00 for each college, $3.00 for each secondary school, and $3.00 each for all other members. Each member shall have one vote."

Third Session, Friday Evening, March 25, 1904

The Association met in the Northwestern University Auditorium to listen to an address by President Slocum, of Colorado College.

EUROPEAN PROBLEMS AS AFFECTED BY TECHNICAL TEACHING.

PRESIDENT WILLIAM F. SLOCUM, COLORADO COLLEGE.

(Abstract of Address.)

What is being said to-night I trust will not seem to agree with the view held by some writers that England is passing into her decadence. It is true that certain great transitions are taking place in her history, but with her great moral and intellectual force she is certainly coming again into a still larger sphere of power and world-wide service.

After the battle of Waterloo, Great Britain became a world power, and London the great financial centre of the civilized nations. For more than two generations this pre-eminence remained with her, her army and navy being respected in every country of the globe. Her writers, scholars and statesmen have played a great part in the evolution of modern history, but at the time of the Baring failure, a suspicion entered into the minds of many that the English nation had passed the zenith of her power.

The climax of her greatness during this century was probably reached at the time of the Berlin Treaty,

when Disraeli seemed at least to be the one man of all others who dictated the settlements in Southeastern Europe as they were mapped out by the treaty. The circumstances which led to it bear upon the question we are discussing, so I ask your patience while I remind you of them. Russia had pushed, as you remember, her war with Turkey until at last she had won in the terrific fight at Plevna and her troops had also driven back Baker Pasha in the Balkans until at last Russia's dream of the centuries seemed on the point of fulfillment as she stood within sight of the walls of Constantinople. Suddenly, however, there came a transition, and Russia paused, for she learned that the English fleet was at the entrance of the Bosphorus. Notice had been served that Russia must go no farther or she would find the English battle ships off Constantinople. Then it was that the congress was called at Berlin and the great English statesman, backed by Germany, Austria, France and Italy, dictated terms to the Russian nation and its Czar. She was told that she could go no farther than Batum, at the eastern end of the Black Sea, that Montenegro and Roumania should preserve their independence; that Bulgaria, south of the Balkans, should remain under the suzerainty of Turkey, and that even Bulgaria north, must still pay tribute to the Sultan.

A few years before this the war between Germany and France had been brought to a conclusion and the proud French nation paid her indemnity of nearly one billion dollars in gold and began her career of reconstruction and re-organization. It was the payment of this enormous sum into Germany which more than anything else brought the new movement of technical education which to-day is affecting the whole

civilized world. The success of the German armies brought what has been called a world consciousness to the great Teutonic nation. She began to realize that her larger future would appear as she came into touch with the larger world movements by means of commerce and the development of her industries.

The great German universities for centuries had produced critical scholarship, but something more than this was found to be necessary, and the leaders of the new movement in Germany were wise enough to understand it. Then it was that there began the development of technical education to an extent that the world has never seen. During the last thirty years there have sprung up all over Germany industrial schools for the training of experts for every handicraft. There is not in fact a single trade in Germany to-day of any importance, that has not its corresponding technical school. Not only are the superintendents of factories receiving the best education for their specialized work, but the evening school is fitting workmen the better to perform their tasks. It is the technical school that is producing the best factory products, the best electrical apparatus, the best supertendents of factories, the best machinists, the best ship builders.

The result of this movement has been the dignifying of labor and an enlargement in skillful manufacturing that has brought the products of the German factories into the markets of the world. The leaders of trade in the Orient to-day are no longer Englishmen but Germans. At Constantinople I found that it is Germany that is building the best wharves on the Bosphorus, and German merchantmen which are unloading their goods in excess of those of any other

nation. Her engineers, her merchants, her ships, her electricians, are found in almost every quarter of the globe; and all this without doubt is the outcome of the development of her technical schools which have changed the whole industrial situation throughout the empire.

Meanwhile a second nation has entered the markets of the world in keen competition with the factories of Great Britain. For many years now, America has been pushing her industrial development. A new life, a new consciousness came to this nation also at the close of the civil war. A readjustment of our finances was necessary, and we had to learn lessons in banking from disaster. Meanwhile experts in America were being trained for the new movement, and our factories and rolling mills began turning out products which have found their way, not only into Africa and Asia, but are actually flooding the markets of England and the Continent. One finds the manufactured goods of the United States in almost every city and village of Great Britain. There is not time to trace in detail this important movement and its effect up to the present time, or to expatiate upon what the manufactured goods of America will accomplish in the next half century in the markets of the world. We, too, are producing machinery, electrical apparatus, cotton and woolen goods, leather and steel products as the outcome of better technical schools and better training on the part of our American young people. It is all this and much more that England is appreciating as never before. It meant very much to her when she discovered two years ago that the average deposit in her savings banks was $27.60, while in America it is a little over $137. It is only the outcome

of her enormous investments that has made it possible to withstand the $800,000,000 each year of balance of trade against her. Her agricultural lands have not been able to withstand the competition of the wheat fields of the Argentine Republic and North America. The question which serious minded Englishmen are asking themselves to-day is how can they retain the markets of the world in competition with such nations as Germany and the United States. The merchants of Liverpool and Manchester have been urging for a number of years the development of technical schools equal to those of America and Prussia. Fortunately the life of Oxford and Cambridge cannot be changed by any such movement, but the boards of control of the old college at Liverpool as well as of the technical schools in Manchester, London and other manufacturing towns throughout the empire, are coming to realize that what England needs is better trained engineers, experts and working men. There is no time or necessity of tracing in detail this new movement in England which is the outgrowth of what the rest of the world is bringng to pass. It surely has come to be recognized that no nation can possibly lead the world movement to-day without the school and the training of the expert engineer.

It would, however, be a great disaster to Great Britain if, in this new movement, she should forget that the best that has ever come to her or to the world, has been the statesmen and scholars, the great intellectual and moral leadership which are the outgrowth of her university education. It is the product of Oxford which has made her the nation of pre-eminent leadership. Her books, her essays, her poetry, her drama, will always be worth more to the world than

the product of her factories; but still the new movement has come and must be reckoned with; and England with her intellectual and moral force will maintain her place in the world's leadership. Still it is true that in the future no nation alone is to dominate the world movement. There are three countries together which will hold this position. It is the Saxon and Anglo-Saxon that possess those spiritual forces which are essential for the best life in the world movement. Not England alone, nor America nor Germany, is to hold the place of ascendency, but these three, acting and reacting upon one another will for long years to come, hold this place of pre-eminent leadership in the world movement.

Fourth Session, Saturday Morning.

The Association was called to order by President Draper at 9:30 o'clock a. m. President Henry C. King, of Oberlin College, then presented the following paper:

THE MORAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE COLLEGE.

PRESIDENT HENRY C. KING, OBERLIN COLLEGE.

1. *Why?* The goal of civilization, our sociologists tell us, is a rational ethical democracy. Our political students insist that the foremost danger of the nation is the lack of the spirit of social service. The greatest needs of the individual man are always character, happiness, and social efficiency. If these statements are even approximately correct, then the deepest demands to be made upon an educational system are that, so far as it may, it should give wisdom in living, that should insure character and happiness to the individual, and that spirit of social service that should make men efficient factors in bringing on the coming rational and ethical democracy. This requires that somewhere in our educational system we should attack the problem of living

NOTE: In coming face to face with the preparation of this paper, requested by your committee, I was embarassed to find that I had already discussed quite fully and as carefully as I could the exact subject there set me. I have ventured, therefore, to make free use of that preceding discussion.

itself and of social service, in the broadest possible way and in a way that is broader than is possible to either the elementary or secondary school, though neither of these may legitimately shirk this task. This assigns to the college pre-eminently the work of teaching in the broadest way the fine art of living, of giving the best preparation that organized education can give for entering wisely and unselfishly into the complex personal relations of life, and for furthering unselfishly and efficiently social progress. Just that is the function of college education. As distinguished from the other forms of education, (1) it has no primary reference to the earning of a living, or to the performance of some specific task: (2) it faces the problem of living itself in a much broader and more thorough-going fashion; (3) it does not specifically aim or expect to reach all, but seeks to train a comparatively small self-selected number who shall be the social leaven of the nation.

And certainly, unless one denies the legitimacy of the very aim — social efficiency — with which either the State or the Church primarily enters upon the work of education at all, the place of the social and moral in college education cannot be questioned. Men may differ as to the best way of meeting these needs, they can hardly differ as to their imperative claim upon any education that is to be called liberal. No let-alone policy here is enough. The moral in its broadest scope should be a clearly recognized part of college education — to be most wisely and considerately done, no doubt with all possible recognition of the moral initiative of the pupil — but to be done, nevertheless. Much talk upon this point seems to make the most singular assumption that the only real

necessity in that finest and most delicate of all worlds, the world of personal relations, is moral backbone; and that a situation that tends to develop that is doing all that can be asked for moral education. But what of aims and ideals and wisest means in all this? What of that sensitive moral judgment and creative imagination and deep sense of the meaning of life, without which no high moral attainment can be made? What right have we indifferently to let things take their course here? This is nothing less than to give the student a shove downward, for other influences do not keep their hands off in the meantime. What else is the object of education but to make a man, all around, a better man than he would have otherwise naturally become?

2. *Extent.* How are the needs of the complete personality to be met in education? What are the *means,* and what is the *spirit* required? The direct study of human nature in its constitution and in the relations of society ought to enable one to answer these questions with some precision. In other words, college education ought to be able to meet a psychological and sociological test. Modern psychology, with, what seems to me, its pre-eminent fourfold insistence, upon the complexity of life, the unity of man, the central importance of will and action, and the concreteness of the real, involving a personal and a social emphasis, has its clear suggestions. And modern sociology, too, with its demand for a social consciousness that shall be characterized by the three-fold conviction of the essential likeness of men, of their mutual influence, and of the value and sacredness of the person, has its definite counsel.

The proper fulfillment of the function of the col-

lege requires as its great *means* (1) a life sufficiently complex to give acquaintance with the great fundamental facts of the world, and to call out the entire man; (2) the completest possible expressive activity on the part of the student, and, (3) personal association with broad and wise and noble lives. And the corresponding *spirit* demanded in college education must be, first, broad and catholic in both senses — as responding to a wide range of interests, and looking to the all-around development of the individual; second, objective rather than self-centered and introspective; and, third, imbued with the fundamental convictions of the social consciousness. These are always the greatest and the alone indispensable means and conditions in a complete education, and they contain in themselves the great sources of character, of happiness, and of social efficiency. The supreme opportunity, in other words, that a college education should offer, is opportunity to use one's full powers, in a wisely chosen, complex environment, in association with the best:— and all this in an atmosphere catholic in its interests, objective in spirit and method, and democratic, unselfish, and finely reverent in its personal relations. Such an ideal definitely combines the best of both the older and the newer college. And the colleges that most completely fulfill this ideal have, I judge, a work which is beyond price, and without possible substitute.

3. *In what particulars?* First the college must furnish a life sufficiently complex to insure to the student a wide circle of interests, and to call out his entire personality. I must pass this point without elaboration, allowing myself but a word. In all cases, with whatever inevitable limitations of situa-

tion, it must at least be demanded that the *spirit* pervading the college should be heartily, though discriminatingly catholic. There should be, certainly, no vaunting of our limitations. And this discriminating breadth of view, it should be noticed, in its recognition of the complexity of life, and of the unity of man, if truly interpreted, itself affords moral support, for it furnishes a motive against mere impulse, and helps directly to that deliberation which is the secret of self-control, and, because it believes that all life is so knit up together, is also strenuous counsel against deterioration at any point.

Beyond this breadth in interest and appeal, the great reliance of an education that is to meet the needs of the entire man must be, as we have seen, upon making all possible use of expressive activity on the part of the student, and of personal association.

And, first, if the "voluntaristic trend" in modern psychology has any justification, if in body and mind we are really made for action, if for the very sake of thought and feeling we must act, then any soundly based education must everywhere make much of the will and of action, must in all departments of its training of the individual — physical, intellectual, aesthetic, social, moral and religious — specifically seek expressive activity. I must pass again regretfully, the application of the principle to the physical, intellectual and aesthetic.

But it is in the realms of the social and moral that expressive activity is most imperatively demanded. If men are to be saved from mere passive sentimentalism they must put their desires, aspirations, and ideals into act. The very employment of

the student in bringing him continually face to face with noble sentiments, peculiarly subjects him to this danger. That which is not expressed dies. Men are best trained for society by acting in society, for the responsibilities of a democracy by taking their part in a really democratic community, for the best fulfilment of personal relations by honest answer to the varied personal demands — human and divine. The student life should not be a hermit nor a cloistered nor an exclusive life. The more natural and normal the personal relations, both to men and women, in the midst of which the student lives, the better the preparation for the actual life that awaits him. And let his relations to the community life, civic and religious, so far as possible, be those of an ordinary law-abiding citizen, and let him *act* as such a citizen, so far as such action is open to him.

Wherever the college calls for the attainment of definite ends, wherever it sets tasks to be faithfully done at given times, wherever it calls out the will of the student in the larger liberty its life affords him, it is doing something for the development of his moral and religious character. But its responsibility cannot end there. The atmosphere of a college should be such as to enlist the enthusiasm of the students in valuable causes — and there are a great variety of them — in which they may already have some share. The naturally self-centered life of the student peculiarly needs such enlistment in objective causes. In the midst of a life permeated with a democratic, unselfish, and reverent spirit he should find increasingly such a spirit called out from him. Living in personal relations which may well be among the closest and richest of his life, he is to

learn the capacity for friendship in the only way it can be learned, through some form of actual useful service. So far as college traditions are in conflict with such an ideal, they lag behind any really Christian civilization. Certainly the college should itself afford the best opportunities for the students' own initiative and expression in the moral life. And — apart from personal association — it can best help the moral life by an atmosphere permeated with the convictions of the social consciousness.

But these are called out most of all by the spirit of the men back of the teaching. And we are thus brought to the greatest of all the means available in an all-around education — personal association — already necessarily anticipated in part. I make no doubt that the prime factors in a complete education are always persons, not things, not even books. It would not be difficult to show how powerful is personal association in all the lines of education, even in scientific work; but it is, of course, most indispensable in moral training.

The inevitable interactions of the members of a cosmopolitan student body are themselves of the greatest intrinsic value. The great fundamental social convictions — of the likeness of men, of the mutual influence of men, of the sacredness of the person — are developed in a true college life almost perforce. And the more genuinely democratic the college, the more certain is its ability to make socially efficient citizens. For the sake of its own highest mission, it can afford to stand against the aristocracy of sex, against the aristocracy of color, against the aristocracy of wealth, against the aristocracy of the clique, against the aristocracy of mere intellectual

brilliancy. And it can safely carry this democratic spirit very far into all its organizations and working.

Beyond these inevitable social interactions of the college life, it is a great thing for the development of a man to be surprised into really unselfish friendships. And the college, by its great community of interests and its natural atmosphere of trust, has peculiar power in bringing about just such unselfish friendships. The contribution which it so makes not only to character but also to happiness, the college man knows well.

In morals we know but one royal road to the highest life — through personal association with those who possess such a life as we ought to have, to whom we can look in admiration and love, and who give themselves unstintedly to us. There is no cheaper way. Even so high a service is often rendered to one student by another student; but it is a wholly just demand to make upon a college that that service should be rendered in pre-eminent degree by its teachers. Whatever may be true in other parts of the educational system, the *college* teacher must be one from whom the highest living can be readily caught. In the interests of simple honesty, the college teacher must be thoroughly prepared to teach what he professes to teach. We cannot begin in character-making with a fraud. And for the same reasons, professing to teach, he should be able to teach. He must have sanity, too, and tact — real wisdom; for the insights of only such a man will be sure to count with others. And, as a man must stand as a convincing witness for the best, he cannot be excused from the requisites of the effective witness — undoubted character and conviction, genuine interest in the deepest life of others,

and that power in putting the great things home, that should belong to his teaching ability. His highest qualification is character — begetting power — power to inspire other men to their absolute best. When one tries to measure the power of even one or two such men in a college community, be begins to see at last what the one indispensable factor in a college is, and how much is at stake in the choice of a faculty. Nothing, let us be sure, so certainly brings about the deterioration of the college, as carelessness in the selection of its teachers. A few compromising appointments here may easily make impossible the maintenance of the college's highest ideals or best traditions. The spirit of a college cannot go down in its buildings or grounds or forms of organization. If its best continues at all and grows, it must continue and grow in persons; and the petty and ignoble cannot carry on the work of the great and worthy. We seem to be in the midst of a great awakening to the over-weighting importance of moral and religious education, and the movement comes none too soon; but let us not for a moment imagine that any change in courses or methods or organization can ever take the place of the one great indispensable means — the personal touch of great and high personalities. And if they are not found in our colleges, where may they be sought?

And when one turns to characterize the *spirit* of the true college he must parallel, as we have seen, the great means of a complex life, of expressive activity, and of personal associations, with the demand for a spirit — heartily but discriminatingly catholic, thoroughly objective, and marked by the great convictions of the social consciousness. In the discussion of the means, the spirit needed has been in no small part

implied. I certainly need not say more concerning the catholicity that must unmistakably mark the true college.

But it does deserve to be emphasized that if psychology's insistance upon the importance of action is at all justified, then our normal mood, the mood of the best work, of the best associations, and of happiness itself, is the objective mood. The great means in education of using one's powers in an interesting and complex environment, even for the very sake of the ideal, itself demands the mood of work. And this needs to be particularly remembered in moral training. The student life in any case is quite too prone to be self-centered, and therefore needs all the more the objective emphasis. But aside from this peculiar need of the student life, the introspective mood itself has a smaller contribution to make to the moral and religious life than has been commonly assumed. Just so much introspection is needed as to make sure that one has put himself in the presence of the great objective forces that lead to character and to God. When this is determined, the work of introspection is practically done. The dominant mood should be objective through and through.

And one chief and good cause of reaction, no doubt, from some of the older methods of moral and religious training in college, has been the lack of this objective spirit.

But if the college looks pre-eminently to social efficiency, and if its greatest means is personal association, its spirit must be, above all, permeated with the great convictions of the social consciousness. Nowhere should the atmosphere be more genuinely and thoroughly democratic, charged with the strong sense

of the likeness of men in the great essentials; nowhere should there be a more evident setting aside of all artificial and merely conventional standards in the estimate of men. No small part of the value of the college education lies in bringing a man steadily to the test of the worth of his naked personality. And when convention rules, the very life of the college has gone out.

The college must add to its democratic spirit the spirit of responsibility and service. Its life must be permeated with the conviction that men are inevitably members one of another, and that responsibility for others, therefore, is inescapable; that, moreover, much of the best of life comes through this knitting up with humanity in many-sided personal relations, and in consequence, this mutual influence of men is not merely inevitable, but desirable and indispensable. Surely, a true cosmopolitan college must be able to send out men marked by the sense of responsibility and of the obligation of service.

But no high development is possible in personal friendship or in society without a deep sense of the value and sacredness of the person. What even the golden rule really demands of a man, depends upon his sense of the significance of life, of the value of his own personality. And if even the sense of the likeness and of the mutual influence of men is to bear satisfying fruit, it must be informed throughout by reverent regard for the lberty and the person of others.

And nowhere is this reverence for the person more needed than in moral and religious education. For the very aim of such education is to bring a man to a faith and a life of *his own*. This requires at every

point the most careful guarding of the other's liberty, the calling out everywhere of his own initiative. There can be, in the nature of the case, no mere imposition upon another of any genuine moral and religious life. And more than this is true. What you will do, what you can do, for another, will be measured by your sense of his value. If men are for you mere creatures of a day with but meager possibilities, nothing can call out from you the largest service in their behalf. Nor is this all. With the sense of the value, the preciousness, of the person, comes a genuine reverence, that not only sacredly guards the other's moral initiative, but understands that the inner life of another is rightly inviolate; that in any high friendship, nay in any true personal relation, there can be only request, never demand. The highest man stands with Christ at the door of the heart of the other, only knocking that he may come in, by the other's full consent alone.

And, if the college is to grapple in any effective way with moral and religious education, it must, beyond all else, have a spirit instinct with such reverence for the person. On this very account, indirect methods here may be really more effective than direct methods. Some wise instruction undoubtedly is desirable, and even imperative, but it must be given by men who have a delicate sense of what personality means; the spirit that pervades the college is here more effective even than the instruction; and it would not be difficult to overdo definite instruction in this field. Character is rather caught than taught.

I cannot doubt, then, that a second important reason for reaction from the older college in its moral and religious education has been because it too often

forgot the supreme need of reverence for the person of the pupil. The disrepute into which the so-called "paternal" methods have fallen implies as much. But is it not worth our while to remember that the name "paternal" is falsely given in such a case? The highest characteristic of the true father is a deep sense of the value and sacredness of the person of his child, not the desire to dominate. And no moral and religious education worthy of the name is possible in a college where such reverence for the person does not prevail; for that reverence, deep-seated and all-pervading, is the finest test of culture, the highest attainment in character, and the surest warrant for social efficiency.

And these great ends — culture, character, and social efficiency — the true college must set before itself. The great *means* to these ends are unmistakable; a complex environment, expressive activity and personal association. The *spirit* demanded is equally indisputable — broadly but discriminatingly catholic in its interests; objective in mood and method, democratic, unselfish, and finely reverent in its personal relations.

In all — means and spirit — we must maintain the primacy of the person. All that is most valuable in college education exists only in living men.

President King's paper was discussed by President Charles F. Thwing, Prof. F. N. Scott, Prof. Albion W. Small, University of Chicago; Dean Talbott, University of Chicago; Dean Woodward, Director Carman, President Howe, Inspector Whitney, Principal J. O. Leslie, Ottawa, Illinois, High School; Prof. John H. Gray, Northwestern University; and Principal Bryan.

PRESIDENT THWING:

Two considerations of great import must be kept in mind in any discussion of the moral responsibility of the higher educational institutions. The first is the ethical value of intellectual truth and intellectual work. These help to form moral as well as intellectual character. The tendency of sustained intellectual endeavor, wherever such endeavor is exacted of students and wherever it is the rule among professors, is away from evil, and counts strongly in favor of sound principles of living. Secondly. Professional students are more or less sensitive at endeavors of professors to influence their moral character through personal intimacies.

PROFESSOR SMALL:

I have no satisfactory theory about the questions that President King has discussed. Two things only are clear to me: First, that responsibility for moral influence is a part of the teaching function all along the line, from kindergarten to professional school; second, that no general rules within my knowledge can settle either the degree of that responsibility or the ways and means of discharging it. So far as I have a theory in the premises, it came to me substantially in the form which I hold now, while I was getting my initiation as a teacher in an ungraded district school. The name of the district was "Indian Island." Some of the pupils were Indians literally. The majority of them were thinly veneered savages. A few had well developed moral instincts. A dozen were older than the teacher, and there were at least a half dozen who were spoiling for a chance to prove that they could best him in a rough and tumble fight. Ac-

cording to the testimony of the previous teacher, and several of the parents, no government but brute force had ever been known, or was considered possible in the school. The situation at once gave me the revelation that moral acts are not like parts of an Elgin watch or a standard bicycle, precisely fitted and interchangeable with similar parts in like mechanism. The morals of the highly developed schools where I had been a pupil could not be made requirements on this low level. Morality is conduct fitted to promote advance of the persons concerned toward worthier life. The virtues of order, obedience, attention, diligence, etc., could not mean as much in this school as might well be insisted on in another school. The problem was to get those pupils interested in acting so that the moral purposes of a school could have a chance. The treatment "indicated" as the doctors say, was to avoid all school requirements for which a good and sufficient reason could not be shown, and to direct the attention of the pupils as exclusively as possible to the reasons, rather than to the requirements. "Scraping our feet on the floor, raises a dust, and makes us cough, and is uncomfortable for the whole school." "Rushing out in a scramble at recess or the close of school is dangerous to the smaller scholars, and takes more time on the whole than going in military order." "Any noise or disturbance in school hours makes it harder for every one to study." "Every one ought to be fair to every one else that wants to get his lessons." I must speak egotistically because my personal experience contains my whole contribution to the question. In brief, the fifty pupils in that school responded to the treatment. There was no occasion for resort to physical suasion, and the verdict of the school board

at the close of the term was that, so far as appearances could be trusted, the school had undergone a moral revolution.

In the management of a small college my experience was a constant repetition of this program and its results. For instance, in persuading the students that the daily chapel exercises required by the college laws was an injury to them if they allowed themselves to destroy its helpful character as a serious devotional service; in showing them that destruction of college property curtailed the resources of the college for furnishing the students increased advantages; in showing them that every student in college is hurt in his reputation if cheating in examinations is tolerated; in showing them that it is more dignified for a student senate to prevent violation of proper rules than for the faculty to act as police and sheriff.

My program in brief would be — first, do not lumber up your morality with arbitrary demands, but confine it to the real economies of conduct; second, insist on the laboratory method in morals, i. e., make the center of moral influence the habitual doing of the things that are right; third, don't depend on practice alone, but use the opportunity which perception of the reasonableness of a practice gives, to enforce the general moral principle that the practice involves.

DEAN TALBOTT:

The principles of moral education laid down by President King have as direct a bearing on university as on collegiate training. The methods he describes are quite as practicable in the graduate school as in the college, while it is even more important that the professional student should be made to realize that the process of character forming did not cease with

the undergraduate work or his years of light responsibility. The teacher of medicine or of law has the same right that the teacher of theology is admitted to have of saying to his students, "My profession is one which is open only to men of high moral character; I shall teach you not merely the technique of the subject, but its vital relationships." The faculty of a professional school fails in its duty if it does not see that the activities of its students are expressed in forms which will help establish right moral character. Direct moral teaching plays a more effective role in a professional than in a collegiate course. A course in medical ethics, for example, is not worthy of the name which is limited to cut and dried rules of procedure and omits the discussion of fundamental moral principles.

DEAN WOODWARD:

The indirect method is the efficient one. Every laboratory exercise strengthens the habit of intellectual honesty, of seeking and stating the truth with no thought of either fear or favor. Engineers, like mechanics, are the most moral of men. I cannot easily imagine an immoral engineer of any great value. Students care little for precepts, much for integrity of character. A single false note, one act disloyal to the truth, a solitary instance of moral cowardice, negatives all preaching, and sometimes destroys a professor's usefulness.

PRESIDENT HOWE:

Technical colleges are professional schools and I am therefore interested in this subject from that standpoint. I heartily agree with President Thwing in his statement that the professional school has not time to give direct moral instruction. Its object is

not to give a complete education, where moral and perhaps religious instruction are essential parts, but to train men for a definite profession, to teach them to do one thing; and the professional school can interest itself in nothing else.

There is, however, an opportunity for these institutions to give indirectly a great deal of moral instruction. They can teach the students to search for truth, to distinguish that which is true from that which is not, to view events and discoveries in their right relations to one another; and these are all moral influences. The personality of the teacher has as great an influence here as in any other college and his personal influence counts for more perhaps than his direct teaching.

In all of these indirect ways the professional school does exercise a moral influence upon its students and it would not be accomplishing its professional work if it did not do so.

PRINCIPAL LESLIE:

The matter of moral training in the secondary school, and especially in the public high school, is one of great importance, and often of great difficulty. It is a matter of difficulty, because the standards of conduct in the political and business community so often differ widely from those which the schoolmaster is expected to enforce in the school. For example, ordinances are passed by city councils forbidding gambling, closing saloons at certain hours, prohibiting reckless driving on the streets, etc.; but, except spasmodically, and for temporary effect, nobody even tries to enforce such ordinances, and the whole community gets in the way of looking at the disregard

and violation of city ordinances as the regular thing; and if perchance, any one braces up and tries to secure the enforcement of ordinances, he is called a crank or a busy-body, or a fool.

Now, the schoolmaster has the children of the community to train, and the children are like their parents, more or less, and soon come to think that regulations concerning conduct are made principally for effect, and can be disregarded with perfect impunity. In school they go upon this assumption until they meet some disagreeably stiff-backed school teacher who insists on obedience to ordinary rules of decorum. Often pupils who seemingly well disposed decorum. Often pupils who are seemingly well disposed have to be sternly reminded of the necessity of observing the most common courtesies.

This state of affairs results as I think, from the common disregard of law and order, but the community does not seem to want the schoolmaster to imitate its own police force or allow the continued disregard of necessary regulations. It wants its children to be made law-abiding, by the schoolmaster, but it does not care to be law-abiding itself.

I once said to a group of citiens who were managers of a "Driving Park," "Gentlemen, how would you like to have me run a wheel of fortune at the high school, just as you do at your races? I could use the rake-off for the library, you know;" but they didn't seem to think that would work at all. "Well," said I, "You want me to teach that what you openly do is wrong, do you?" They said that they didn't know as they wanted anything said about it, but they did not want me to adopt their plan.

This very fact, that the community is willing to

permit constant violation of law, while it expects its schoolmaster to enforce constant observance of law makes his task difficult, though extremely necessary.

The Executive Committee recommended for institutional membership the following, and on motion the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for these institutions:

The Howe School, of Lima, Indiana, J. H. McKenzie, Rector; West Division High School, Milwaukee, C. E. McLenegan, principal; North Division High School, Milwaukee, R. E. Krug, principal; Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, G. P. Benton, president; Kewanee (Ill.) High School, principal, J. B. Cleveland; Ripon College, Ripon, Wis., president, Richard C. Hughes; Central High School, St. Paul, principal, E. V. Robinson; the Academy of Drury College, Springfield, Mo.

The following were also recommended by the Executive Committee for individual membership, and on motion were elected to individual membership:

David R. Major, Professor of Education in Ohio State University; J. W. Crabtree, Inspector of Accredited Schools, University of Nebraska; Superintendent E. G. Cooley, Chicago Public Schools; A. Ross Hill, Dean of Teachers' College, University of Missouri.

The President then appointed members of the Commission on accredited schools. The present membership is as follows:

THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

1902-1905—President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President J. R. Kirk, of the Mis-

souri State Normal School, Kirksville; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute, Chicago.

1903-1906—Dean H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago; President W. L. Bryan, of the University of Indiana; Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Superintendent C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis.

1904-1907—Dean E. A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; President J. H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland.

1904-1905—Professor J. V. Denney and Inspector W. W. Boyd, of the Ohio State University; President C. F. Thwing and Inspector Bowen, of Western Reserve University; Secretary G. M. Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal E. W. Coy, of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati; President J. B. Angell, of the University of Michigan; Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo; Principal F. L. Bliss, of the Detroit University School; Inspector H. A. Hollister, of the University of Illinois; Professor G. E. Vincent, of the University of Chicago; Professor H. E. Griffith, of Knox College; Professor W. R. Bridgman, of Lake Forest College; Principal C. W. French, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School, Chicago; Professor J. A. James, of Northwestern University; Inspector A. W. Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin; President E. D. Eaton, of Beloit College; Inspector G. B. Aiton, of Minnesota; Inspector J. F. Brown, of the University of Iowa; President H. H. Seerley, of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls; Professor A. Ross Hill, of the Univer-

sity of Missouri; Professor M. S. Snow, of Washington University; Superintendent F. L. Soldan, of St. Louis; Professor L. Fossler, of the University of Nebraska; Inspector J. W. Crabtree, of Nebraska; Professor W. H. Carruth, of the University of Kansas; Princpal W. H. Smiley, of the Denver High School.

The report of the Auditing Committee was then presented, as follows, and upon motion, was adopted:

To the North-Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

Your Committee appointed to audit the report of the Treasurer for the year 1903–1904, beg to report that they have examined the treasurer's accounts and have found them correct.

Signed
J. F. Brown,
J. A. James,
F. L. Bliss.

The Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting reported as follows, and on motion, the report was adopted:

We recommend that the next meeting of the Association be held at the Auditorium Hotel in Chicago on the last Friday and Saturday in March, 1905, the Executive Committee being empowered to change the date should a change be necessary in order to avoid conflicts.

Signed
J. R. Kirk,
C. A. Waldo,
E. W. Coy.

The Committee on Nominations presented the following report:

On motion, the report was adopted.

Your Committee on Nominations begs to recommend for election to the various offices to be filled the names given below.

Respectfully yours,
G. N. Carman,
A. S. Whitney,
E. V. Robinson.

FOR PRESIDENT:

Principal Frederick L. Bliss,
Detroit University School.

FOR VICE-PRESIDENTS:

OHIO —

President Charles S. Howe,
Case School of Applied Science.
Inspector W. W. Boyd,
Ohio State University.

MICHIGAN —

Professor F. N. Scott,
University of Michigan.
Principal Lawrence C. Hull,
Michigan Military Academy.

INDIANA —

President W. L. Bryan,
University of Indiana.
Superintendent C. N. Kendall,
Indianapolis.

ILLINOIS —

President R. D. Harlan,
Lake Forest College.
Principal J. O. Leslie,
Ottawa High School.

WISCONSIN —

President Ellen C. Sabin,
Milwaukee-Downer College.
Inspector A. W. Tressler,
University of Wisconsin.

MINNESOTA —

Inspector G. B. Aiton,
Minneapolis.

IOWA —

President H. H. Seerley,
Cedar Falls State Normal School.
Inspector J. F. Brown,
The State University of Iowa.

MISSOURI —

Professor C. M. Woodward,
Washington University.
Principal G. B. Morrison,
McKinley High School, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA —

Inspector J. W. Crabtree,
University of Nebraska.

KANSAS —
Chancellor Frank Strong,
University of Kansas.

COLORADO —
President W. F. Slocum,
Colorado College.
Inspector Sanford Bell,
University of Colorado.

FOR SECRETARY:

Professor Joseph V. Denney,
Ohio State University, Columbus.

FOR TREASURER:

Principal J. E. Armstrong,
Englewood High School, Chicago.

FOR EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE IN ADDITION TO THE PRESIDENT, SECRETARY AND TREASURER EX-OFFICIO:

Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan.
President H. C. King, Oberlin College.
Principal W. J. S. Bryan, St. Louis High School.
Professor J. A. James, Northwestern University.

Director Carman called attention to the fact of the existence of several North Central organizations of teachers of special subjects, such as history, English, science, and mathematics, one of which, the North Central History Teachers' Association is now meeting in Chicago. He suggested that it might be well to make the connection closer than it now is between these organizations and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One advantage of such connection would be that the Commission on Accredited Schools could from time to time refer to these organizations such definitions of units as require revision. Another advantage would be that reduced rates could be secured from the railroads if a larger number of teachers were to meet at the same

time and place. It was suggested that there might be other advantages which would result from the co-operation of all North Central organizations of teachers. He therefore moved that the Executive Committee of the Association consider the advisability of inviting North Central Associations of teachers of special subjects to hold their meetings in connection with this Association. The motion was adopted.

On motion, the Association adjourned at 11:50 o'clock A. M.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

INSTITUTIONS.

(c. m. means charter member.)

OHIO.

Ohio State University, c. m., Columbus, President W. O. Thompson.
Western Reserve University, c. m., Cleveland, President Chas. F. Thwing.
Oberlin College, c. m., Oberlin, President H. C. King.
Ohio Wesleyan University, c. m., Delaware.
Denison University, '99, Granville, President Emory W. Hunt.
University of Cincinnati, '99, Cincinnati, President C. W. Dabney.
Miami University, '04, Oxford, President Guy P. Benton.
Central High School, c. m., Cleveland, Principal Edward L. Harris.
Hughes High School, '96, Cincinnati, Principal E. W. Coy.
Steele High School, '96, Dayton.
High School, '96, Toledo.
Walnut Hills High School, '99, Cincinnati.
Woodward High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal Geo. W. Harper.
West High School, '00, Cleveland, Principal Theo. H. Johnston.
East High School, '02, Columbus, Principal F. B. Pearson.
University School, '02, Cleveland, Principal George D. Pettee.
South High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal G. A. Ruetenik.
Lincoln High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal J. W. McLane.
High School, '02, Chillicothe.
East High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal B. U. Rannels.
Rayen High School, '03, Youngstown, Principal W. L. Griswold.

MICHIGAN.

University of Michigan, c. m., Ann Arbor, President Jas. B. Angell.
Albion College, c. m., Albion, President Samuel Dickie.
Central High School, c. m., Grand Rapids, Principal A. J. Volland.
Michigan Military Academy, c. m., Orchard Lake.
High School, '95, Kalamazoo, Superintendent S. O. Hartwell.
East Side High School, '95, Saginaw, Superintendent E. C. Warriner.
Detroit University School, '00, Detroit, Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

INDIANA.

Indiana University, c. m., Boomington, President W. L. Bryan.
Wabash College, c. m., Crawfordsville, President W. P. Kane.
High School, c. m., LaPorte, Superintendent J. W. Knight.
High School, '96, Fort Wayne, Principal C. F. Lane.
Girls' Classical School, '00, Indianapolis, Principal May W. Sewall.
High School, '01, Lafayette, Superintendent E. Ayers.
Howe School, '04, Lima, Rector T. H. McKenzie.

ILLINOIS.

University of Illinois, c. m., Champaign.
University of Chicago, c. m., Chicago, President Wm. R. Harper.
Northwestern University, c. m., Evanston, President E. J. James.
Lake Forest University, c. m., Lake Forest, President R. D. Harlan.
Knox College, '96, Galesburg.
High School, c. m., Evanston, Principal Henry L. Boltwood.
Northwestern Academy, c. m., Evanston, Principal H. F. Fisk.
Morgan Park Academy, c. m., Morgan Park, Dean W. J. Chase.
Manual Training School, c. m., Chicago, Director H. H. Belfield.
Harvard School, c. m., Chicago, Principal John J. Schobinger.
High School, c. m., Peoria, Superintendent Newton C. Dougherty.
Lake Forest School, Lake Forest, Head Master J. C. Sloane.
West Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal C. M. Clayberg.
Hyde Park High School, '95, Chicago, Principal C. W. French.
Lake View High School, '96, Chicago, Principal B. F. Buck.
Englewood High School, '96, Chicago, Principal J. E. Armstrong.
Ottawa Tp. High School, '96, Ottawa, Principal J. O. Leslie.
Lyons Tp. High School, '96, La Grange, Principal Cole.
Lewis Institute, '95, Chicago, Director G. N. Carman.
Streator Tp. High School, '97, Streator, Principal Alfred Bayliss.
Bradley Polytechnic Institute, '97, Peoria, Director E. O. Sisson.
High School, '98, Elgin, Principal Eugene C. Pierce.
Lake High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Edward F. Stearns.
Marshall High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Louis J. Block.
Kewanee High School, '04, Kewanee, Principal J. B. Cleveland.

WISCONSIN.

University of Wisconsin, c. m., Madison, President Van Hise.
Beloit College, c. m., Beloit, President Edward D. Eaton.
Ripon College, '04, President Richard C. Hughes.
Milwaukee-Downer College, '97, Milwaukee, President Ellen C. Sabin.
Milwaukee Academy, '97, Milwaukee, Principal J. H. Pratt.

West Division High School, '04, Milwaukee, Principal C. E. McLenegan.
North Division High School, '04, Milwaukee, Principal R. E. Krug.

MINNESOTA.

Humboldt High School, St. Paul, Principal H. S. Baker.
Central High School, '04, St. Paul, Principal E. V. Robinson.

IOWA.

State University of Iowa, c. m., Iowa City, President Geo. E. MacLean.
Cornell College, c. m., Mt. Vernon, President Wm. F. King.
State Normal School, c. m., Cedar Falls, President D. S. Wright.
Iowa College, '95, Grinnell, President J. H. P. Main.

MISSOURI.

University of Missouri, c. m., Columbia, President Richard H. Jesse.
Washington University, c. m., St. Louis, Chancellor Winfield S. Chaplin.
Drury College, '98, Springfield, President Homer T. Fuller.
Missouri Valley College, '98, Marshall, President Wm. H. Black.
High School, '96, St. Louis, Principal W. J. S. Bryan.
Westminster College, '00, Fulton, President John H. MacCracken.
Mexico High School, Mexico, Superintendent D. A. McMillan.
Manual Training High School, '00, Kansas City.
Mary Institute '00, St. Louis, Principal E. H. Sears.
Kirkwood High School, '00, Kirkwood, Superintendent R. G. Kinkead.
Park College, '02, Parkville, President Lowell M. McAfee.
Academy of Drury College, '04, Springfield, Principal C. P. Howland.

NEBRASKA.

University of Nebraska, '96, Lincoln, President E. Benj. Andrews.

KANSAS.

University of Kansas, '96, Lawrence, Chancellor Frank Strong.

COLORADO.

University of Colorado, '96, Boulder, President Jas. H. Baker.
Colorado College, '96, Colorado Springs, President W. F. Slocum.
High School No. 1, '96, Denver, President Wm. H. Smiley.

OKLAHOMA.

University of Oklahoma, '01, Norman, President David R. Boyd.

INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS.

OHIO.

Charles S. Howe, '02, President of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland.

Jos. V. Denney, '03, Dean of the College of Arts, Philosophy and Science, Ohio State University, Columbus.

W. W. Boyd, '03, High School Visitor, Ohio State University, Columbus.

D. R. Major, '04, Professor in Ohio State University, Columbus.

MICHIGAN.

W. W. Beman, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Francis W. Kelsey, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Fred N. Scott, '98, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

L. H. Jones, '95, President of State Normal School, Ypsilanti.

A. S. Whitney, '03, High School Inspector, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Delos Fall, '03, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing.

INDIANA.

Clarence A. Waldo, '95, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

Carl Leo Mees, '96, President of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute.

J. J. Mills, '99, President of Earlham College, Richmond.

Robert J. Aley, '99, Professor in Indiana University, Bloomington.

Edward Ayers, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.

W. W. Parsons, '99, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute.

Stanley Coulter, '01, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

C. N. Kendall, '01, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis.

T. F. Moran, '02, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

S. A. Forbes, '95, Dean, University of Illinois, Champaign.

A. V. E. Young, '95, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Thomas C. Chamberlin, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Harry P. Judson, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Marion Talbot, '97, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Wm. A. Greeson, '97, Dean of Lewis Institute, Chicago.
F. W. Gunsaulus, '96, President of Armour Institute, Chicago.
U. S. Grant, '02, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Thomas F. Holgate, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
J. A. James, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Henry Crew, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
A. F. Nightingale, c. m., County Superintendent, 1997 Sheridan Road, Chicago.
R. E. Hieronymus, '03, President of Eureka College, Eureka.
H. A. Hollister, '03, High School Inspector, University of Illinois, Champaign.
E. G. Cooley, '04, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.

WISCONSIN.

Edward A. Birge, '96, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
M. V. O'Shea, '98, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
A. W. Tressler, '03, High School Inspector, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

MINNESOTA.

George B. Aiton, '97, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis.

IOWA.

J. F. Brown, '03, High School Inspector, State University, Iowa City.

MISSOURI.

F. Louis Soldan, '00, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
John R. Kirk, '98, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.
C. M. Woodward, '99, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.
Ben Blewett, '03, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
A. Ross Hill, '04, Dean of Teachers' College, University of Missouri, Columbia.

NEBRASKA.

J. W. Crabtree, '04, Inspector of Accredited Schools, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

KANSAS.

W. A. Davidson, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

AS AMENDED AT THE NINTH ANNUAL MEETING, MARCH, 26, 1904.

ARTICLE I.

NAME.

The name of this Association shall be the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE II.

OBJECT.

The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States.

ARTICLE III.

MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1.— The members of the Association shall consist of the following two classes: First, colleges and universities, and secondary schools. Secondly, individuals indentified with educational work within the limits of the Association.

Sec. 2.— Election to membership shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting, and shall be made only upon the nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3.— In the membership of the Association, the representation of higher and of secondary education shall be as nearly equal as possible.

Sec. 4.— An institutional member shall be represented at the meeting of the Association by its executive head, or by some one designated by him in credentials addressed to the Secretary.

Sec. 5.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than fifteen units of secondary work as defined by the Commission on Accredited Schools.

Sec. 6.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

Sec. 7.— No secondary school shall be eligible to membership which does not provide fifteen units of secondary work as defined by the Commission on Accredited Schools.

ARTICLE IV.

POWERS.

All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

ARTICLE V.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

Section 1.— The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents from each state represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and four other members elected by the Association.

Sec. 2.— The officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting for the term of one year, or until their successors are elected. The election shall be by ballot.

Sec. 3.— The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint committees for conference with other bodies, whenever in their judgment it may seem expedient.

Sec. 4.— In case an officer holding office as representative of an institutional member severs his connection with the institution represented, he shall at his discretion hold his office until the close of the next regular meeting of the Association.

Sec. 5.— The Executive Committee shall have authority to fill a vacancy in any office, the officer elected by the committee to hold office until the close of the next annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

Section 1.— The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents selected by the Executive Committee, shall preside at

the meetings of the Association, and shall sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

Sec. 2.— The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the Association and attend to all necessary correspondence and printing.

Sec. 3.— The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

Sec. 4.— The Executive Committee shall make all nominations for membership in the Association, fix the time of all meetings not otherwise provided for, prepare programmes, and act for the Association when it is not in session. All the acts of the Executive Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association and such special meetings as the Association may appoint.

ARTICLE VIII.

MEMBERSHIP FEE.

To meet expenses, an annual fee of $10 shall be paid by each university, $5 by each college, and $3 each by all other members, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.

QUORUM.

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.

AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meeting.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1904-1905.

PRESIDENT:

Principal Frederick L. Bliss,
Detroit University School.

VICE-PRESIDENTS:

OHIO —

President Charles S. Howe,
Case School of Applied Science.

Inspector W. W. Boyd,
Ohio State University.

MICHIGAN —

Professor F. N. Scott,
University of Michigan.

Principal Lawrence C. Hull,
Michigan Military Academy.

INDIANA —

President W. L. Bryan,
University of Indiana.

Superintendent C. N. Kendall,
Indianapolis.

ILLINOIS —

President R. D. Harlan,
Lake Forest College.

Principal J. O. Leslie,
Ottawa High School.

WISCONSIN —

President Ellen C. Sabin,
Milwaukee-Downer College.

Inspector A. W. Tressler,
University of Wisconsin.

MINNESOTA —

Inspector G. B. Aiton,

IOWA —

President H. H. Seerley,
Cedar Falls State Normal School.

Inspector J. F. Bryan,
The State University of Iowa.

MISSOURI —

Professor C. M. Woodward,
Washington University.
Principal G. B. Morrison,
McKinley High School, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA —

Inspector J. W. Crabtree,
University of Nebraska.

KANSAS —

Chancellor Frank Strong,
University of Kansas.

COLORADO —

President W. F. Slocum,
Colorado College.
Inspector Sanford Bell,
University of Colorado.

SECRETARY:

Professor Joseph V. Denney,
Ohio State University, Columbus.

TREASURER:

Principal J. E. Armstrong,
Englewood High School, Chicago.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE IN ADDITION TO THE PRESIDENT, SECRETARY AND TREASURER EX-OFFICIO:

Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan.
President H. C. King, Oberlin College.
Professor W. J. S. Bryan, St. Louis High School.
Professor J. A. James, Northwestern University.

REGISTRATION.

AITON, George B., State Inspector, Minneapolis, Minn.
ALBERT, C. J., Chicago, Ill.
AMBROSE, Thos., Chicago, Ill.
ARMSTRONG, J. E., Englewood High School, Chicago.
BACON, George A., Chicago, Ill.
BAILLOT, E. P., Northwestern University, Evanston.
BARBER, G. E., University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
BELFIELD, Henry H., Manual Training School, Chicago.
BELL, Sanford, University of Colorado, Boulder.

BENNETT, Edith Page, Township High School, Ottawa, Ill.
BENSON, Clarissa White, Township High School, La Grange, Ill.
BLISS, F. L., Detroit University School, Detroit, Mich.
BOLTWOOD, Henry L., Township High School, Evanston, Ill.
BOYD, David R, University of Oklahoma, Norman.
BRECK, Miss E. J., Oakland, California.
BRIDGMAN, W. R., Lake Forest College, Ill.
BROWN, Hugh, Chicago, Ill.
BROWN, J. F., The State University of Iowa, Iowa City.
BRYAN, W. H., University of Chicago, Chicago.
BRYAN, W. J. S., Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.
BRYAN, Mrs. W. J. S., St. Louis, Mo.
BURGESS, T. C., Bradley Institute, Peoria, Ill.
BURRITT, E. G., Evansville Seminary, Evansville, Wis.
CARAWAY, Ann Estelle, Academy Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
CARMAN, G. N., Lewis Institute, Chicago.
CHARMAN, Albert R., Indiana State Normal, Terre Haute, Ind.
CHURCH, H. V., J. Sterling Morton High School, Clyde, Ill.
CLARKE, B. F., La Grange, Ill.
CLARK, B. F., Chicago, Ill.
CLEVELAND, John B., High School, Kewanee, Ill.
COBB, H. E., Lewis Institute, Chicago.
COLLIE, George L., Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.
COOLEY, Edwin G., Superintendent, Chicago.
COY, E. W., Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
CRABTREE, J. W., University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
DENNEY, Joseph V., Ohio State University, Columbus.
DOUGHERTY, N. C., Superintendent, Peoria, Ill.
DRAPER, A. S., University of Illinois, Champaign.
ECKLES, W. A., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
FARLEY, Sarah M., Township High School, La Grange, Ill.
FAUROT, Albert A., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
FISHER, Edward P., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
FISKE, H. F., Northwestern Academy, Evanston, Ill.
FORBES, S. A., University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
FORESMAN, H. A., Chicago, Ill.
FRENCH, Chas. W., Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.
FROULA, V. K., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
GEIGER, Wm. F., East Aurora High School, Aurora, Ill.
GRAVES, Frank P., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
GRAY, John H., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
GRIFFITH, H. E., Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.
GROVE, J. H., Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.
HALL, Florence M., Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, Wis.

HARLAN, Richard D., Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Ill.
HARRIS, Edward L., Central High School, Cleveland.
HARTWELL, S. O., Kalamazoo High School, Kalamazoo, Mich.
HAYWARD, Thos. E., East Aurora High School, Aurora, Ill.
HIERONYMUS, Robert E., Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.
HILL, A. Ross, University of Missouri, Columbia.
HINMAN, Eva M., Mackinaw, Ill.
HOBSON, A. W., Chicago, Ill.
HOLGATE, Thomas F., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
HOLLISTER, H. A., University of Illinois, Champaign.
HOWE, Charles S., Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, O.
HOWLAND, C. P., Drury College, Springfield, Mo.
HUGHES, Richard C., Ripon College, Ripon, Wis.
JACK, Albert E., Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Ill.
JAMES, J. A., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
JENKINS, T. A., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
JONES, George M., Oberlin College, Oberlin Ohio.
JONES, Jessie L., Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.
KANE, William P., Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.
KING, H. C., Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.
KIRK, John R., State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.
LESLIE, J. O., High School, Ottawa, Ill.
LEWIS, E. H., Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.
LONG, O. F., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
MAIN, J. H. T., Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.
MACNAIR, Mary, Hinsdale High School, Hinsdale, Ill.
MCMANIS, J. T., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
MORTON, W. M., Chicago, Ill.
NEEDHAM, James G., Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Ill.
NIGHTINGALE, A. F., County Superintendent, Cook Co., Chicago, Ill.
O'SHEA, M. V., University of Wisconsin, Madison.
PAGE, Edward C., State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
POWELL, B. E., Township High School, Winnetka, Ill.
PRATT, J. H., Milwaukee Academy, Milwaukee, Wis.
PUTNAM, J. W., University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
RUNYON, William H., Township High School, La Grange, Ill.
SABIN, Ellen C., Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, Wis.
SCHMIDT, G. W., Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Ill.
SCOTT, F. N. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
SIGMUND, Frederick L., Carthage College, Carthage, Ill.
SLOCUM, William F., Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Col.
SMALL, Albion W., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
SMITH, Chas. H., Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.
SMITH, E. R., Chicago, Ill.
SPARKS, Myrtle E., Ottawa, Illinois.

Stagg, A. A., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Stout, S. E., Howe School, Lima, Indiana.
Talbot, Marion, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Thwing, Charles F., Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.
Tolman, A. H., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Tomson, Lena B., Milwaukee–Downer College, Milwaukee, Wis.
Tressler, A. W., University of Wisconsin, Madison.
Waldo, C. A., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
Wells, Ruth, High School, Hinsdale, Ill.
Westcott, Laura J., Township High School, Ottawa, Ill.
Whitney, A. S., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Williams, Mary Louise, Northwestern Academy, Evanston, Ill.
Wilson, Lucy L., West Division High School, Chicago, Ill.
Woodward, C. M., Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.
Wright, Horace C., J. Sterling Morton High School, Clyde, Ill.
Young, W. F., Chicago, Ill.
Young, J. W., Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

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MAR 16 1906
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

North Central Association

OF

COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Held at
Chicago, Illinois, March 31, April 1, 1905

EDITED BY
JOSEPH VILLIERS DENNEY
SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

COLUMBUS, OHIO
PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
1905

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1905

Copies of the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. J. E. Armstrong, Englewood High School, Chicago. The price of single copies is twenty-five cents. The price of the complete set as far as published (eleven numbers, including the report of the Preliminary Meeting for Organization) is $2.50.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, March 30 and 31, 1906.

PRESS OF
THE CHAMPLIN PRINTING CO.
COLLEGE PRINTERS
COLUMBUS, O.

The North Central Association

OF

Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Tenth Annual Meeting, Chicago, March 31, April 1, 1905.

The tenth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in Chicago, Friday and Saturday, March 31 and April 1, 1905.

First Session, Friday, March 31, 1905.

The Association was called to order at 10 o'clock a. m. in the Banqueting Hall of the Auditorium Hotel by the President, Frederick L. Bliss, Principal of the Detroit University School, Detroit, Michigan.

President Bliss delivered the annual address, as follows:

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

PRINCIPAL FREDERICK L. BLISS, DETROIT UNIVERSITY SCHOOL.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

On this, the tenth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, it seems fitting that a brief summary of the history and work of the association be made.

Sec. 5.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than fifteen units of secondary work as defined by the Commission on Accredited Schools.

Sec. 6.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

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All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

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Sec. 3.— The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

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MEMBERSHIP FEE.

To meet expenses, an annual fee of $10 shall be paid by each university, $5 by each college, and $3 each by all other members, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.

QUORUM.

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.

AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meeting.

schools and colleges. It is interesting to note that at the preliminary meeting at Evanston a resolution was adopted asking that the Executive Committee submit for discussion at the first annual meeting the questions "What constitutes a Secondary School?" and "What constitutes a College?" Ten years have not entirely answered these questions, but substantial progress has been made.

The first regular meeting of the association was held at the University of Chicago, April 3 and 4, 1896, with President Angell in the chair. The question recommended at the former meeting was discussed, but little progress was made toward a satisfactory definition of school or college. Possibly the two institutions cannot be exactly defined. President Jesse's definition presented at this meeting is as close an approach to a satisfactory definition as has yet been made. The unanimious adoption of the following resolution proposed by President Rogers was the first definite act of this association tending toward the establishment of standards: "Resolved, That, in the opinion of this association, no College is considered in good standing that confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science, except after a period of at least two years of residence and of graduate study." and "Resolved, That no College not in good standing under the above resolution is eligible to membership in this association."

The second annual meeting was held at Lewis Institute, February 12 and 13, 1897, with President Adams of Wisconsin, presiding. It was pre-eminently a meeting of discussion rather than of action, but the whole discussion served to narrow the gulf

between the college man and the school man. The association took decided action against the practice now rapidly disappearing of introducing a multiplicity of short single term courses in secondary schools, and also against the appointment by colleges of inexperienced teachers for Freshmen. The question as to the proper content of the secondary course was vigorously discussed and finally thrown over to the next meeting for action.

The third annual meeting was held at the Auditorium Hotel, and was presided over by President Canfield of Ohio State University. Important amendments to the constitution were adopted at this meeting. One of these excludes from membership any college or university whose requirements for admission represent less than four years' secondary work, and any that confer the degree of Ph. D., or Sc. D., except after two years of residence and graduate study, and another amendment excludes secondary schools which do not have a four years' course of study.

This meeting is of especial importance because of the introduction of the resolution "That a uniform minimum requirement be established for admission to any and all courses in the colleges and universities of this association." The resolution which specified, further, certain prescribed constants, provoked one of the most important discussions in the history of the association. The result was the adoption of a resolution of President Rodgers of Northwestern University, with an amendment by President Draper of the University of Illinois, providing that separate commissions be appointed to formulate entrance re-

quirements in each of the ordinary accepted subjects, each commission to include five college men, and five secondary school men. Owing to a misunderstanding, these commissions were never appointed, but the movement then begun reached definite results at the meeting of 1901, in the establishment of the Commission on Accredited Schools.

The fourth resolution of the previous meeting was discussed at length and disposed of by the adoption of the substitute proposed by Dr. Nightingale. The resolution favored much freedom of election in secondary school work.

The fourth annual meeting was held at the Auditorium Hotel, March 31 and April 1, 1899, with Dr. Nightingale in the chair. The proposed amendment excluding individual membership in the association was debated and failed of adoption. Might it now be well to refer this whole matter of membership in the association to a special committee to report at the next annual meeting? The present plan is certainly illogical, although that is no necessary objection to it. It has recently been urged that the election of certain members of college faculties to membership when others are not thus elected, carries with it the unfortunate assumption that those not finally elected are unwelcome at the meetings of the association. In other words, without intention, there is an odious discrimination on the part of the association. If this feeling exists, it is unfortunate. May not some compromise plan of membership be devised by a committee which will secure the co-operation of all heretofore identified with the association and maintain a proper balance between sec-

ondary and higher education, at the same time abolishing some of the possible objections to the present plan? While making this suggestion, I am in hearty accord with the idea advanced two years ago by Director Carman, that the actual membership should be limited in numbers, and that this body should continue a working and not a mere talking organization.

The meeting otherwise was devoted to interesting discussions, but was without formal action.

The fifth meeting was held in St. Louis, March 30 and 31, 1900, with President Slocum in the chair. As the result of a paper by President Rogers, of which, unfortunately, no report has been preserved, a committee was appointed under the chairmanship of President Baker to consider college entrance requirements. This committee reported with certain specific recommendations as to minimum requirements, but especially urged the appointment of the commission provided for by resolution at the meeting of 1898, but never appointed.

The sixth annual meeting was held at the usual place in Chicago, March 29 and 30, 1901, with Mr. Aiton of Minnesota, as President of the association.

Dean S. A. Forbes of the University of Illinois, in a valuable paper, proposed "a general standing committee" on college entrance requirements, and on motion of Professor C. A. Waldo of Purdue University, a committee was appointed to consider and report on the recommendation.

The committee, which consisted of Dean Forbes, President Cady Staley, President W. R. Harper,

Principal C. G.. Ballou and Professor Stanley Coulter, recommended the establishment of a permanent Commission on Accredited Schools, and stated the duties of the proposed commission to be "To define and describe unit courses of study; to serve as a standing committee on uniformity of admission requirements; to secure uniformity and economy in the work of high school inspection; to prepare a list of high schools entitled to the accredited relationship; and to formulate standards for assignment of college credit for good high school work done in advance of the college entrance requirements."

The report was adopted and the Commission was appointed at the close of the meeting.

The seventh meeting of the association was held at Cleveland, March 28 and 29, 1902. The important feature of this meeting was the first report of the Commission on Accredited Schools. The report was adopted, and this adoption can not but be regarded as making an era in the educational history of the North Central States. The report defined a unit course of study as "a course covering a school year of not less than thirty-five weeks, with four or five periods of at least forty-five minutes each per week." It recommended that entrance requirements should include fifteen units, and that all such requirements should include as constants three units of English and two of mathematics. The report also included a fairly complete definition of units in particular subjects. The policy of the commission was to adopt as far as possible units already recognized by other associations, thus aiding the cause for which in large part it was established, the bringing something like order out of

the chaos of college requirements, and the cementing still further the growing union of effort on the part of colleges and secondary schools.

The eighth meeting held at Chicago, April 3 and 4, 1903, still further emphasized the value of the work of the Commission. The definitions adopted at the Cleveland meeting were supplemented and somewhat modified. It was reported that the Ohio Legislature had adopted certain features of the commission's work in classifying the high schools of the state. Other features of the meeting were a discussion of the influence of Higher Commercial Education, and the adoption of the report of the Committee on Athletics.

The ninth annual meeting held March 25 and 26, 1904, again showed the importance of the work of the Commission. The Board of Inspection for the Commission through Chairman Whitney, presented an extremely important report, including a list of accredited schools, and formulating suggestions as to the utilization by the board of existing agencies of inspection. The report was adopted by the association. An important communication from Secretary Fiske of the College Entrance Examination Board was presented to the association, asking that it co-operate with the board by appointing a representative or representatives to membership on the Board. The discussion following emphasized the almost unanimous preference for the certificate or accrediting system, but it was nevertheless voted to co-operate with the Examination Board. It should seem that the work of the Board is really entirely in harmony with the spirit of the association's work. Most of the eastern institutions represented on the Board

accept certificates. The recent organization of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board by New England Colleges emphasizes their belief in the certificate system, when properly regulated; but college entrance examinations must nevertheless continue. All secondary schools of proper standards refuse certificates to some students who might possibly profit by college work. The colleges do not refuse to examine them, and often admit them. Is it not better that there shall be unity in such examinations, that common standards shall be accepted, than it is that there shall be laxity of standard or unreasonableness of standard on the part of certain institutions? The units accepted by this association conform almost exactly to the standards of the College Board. These standards are having a marked influence upon the requirements of eastern colleges. I feel that the cause of orderliness in educational matters would be greatly advanced if the higher institutions of this association all became associated actively with the work of the College board. Cornell and other eastern colleges have dropped their own June examinations. These colleges receive certificates, but they co-operate also fully with the work of the board.

I am led to call attention here to an interesting fact in the history of our own commission. I have referred before to the resolution adopted at the meeting of 1898, providing for the formation of a commission or a board of commissions. No action was taken, but the commission proposed was not a commission on accredited schools, but was really designed to be a college entrance examination board for the North Central States. The discussion of the subject

brought out many differences of opinion as to details, but the idea that an examining commission was inconsistent with a certificate system found no advocate. Out of the movement then to establish a college examination commission has grown our present Commission on Accredited Schools. The discussion last year on the invitation of the College Entrance Examination Board, showed that many felt that co-operation with that Board was a menace to the accrediting system. I cannot so regard it. I thoroughly believe that were the work of this Board extended westward or were this association to establish a board of its own to co-operate with the commission, the standards of education would be materially strengthened. No one can more strongly appreciate the evils of college examination ridden schools. But the properly prepared examinations, those prepared by a commission especially, are suggestive to teachers, and may be made of the greatest value by mere suggestion in raising the standard of work in the secondary schools. It is agreed that if a subject is taught at all it should be taught alike to those going to college and to those not to go. It is certainly true that any subject should be studied with equal thoroughness by both. If the colleges of this association would co-operate in a plan of uniform examinations upon our already recognized units and were to publish and widely distribute these questions annually, they would do more to set standards for multitudes of schools than can possibly be done alone by any practicable system of inspection.

If, too, the colleges would spread entrance examinations over a period of three years, one of the

chief evils of the examination system would be removed. Years ago all candidates were examined in all subjects at the end of their course. The result was the establishment and maintenance of preparatory schools which devoted the last year to a cramming process just as genuinely educational as the methods of Dr. Blimber or of that other eminent exponent of cram Mr. Gradgrind. The evils of the system were perhaps mitigated when the colleges consented to preliminary and final examinations. But still the tendency is to make such institutions as are described in the Atlantic Monthly for September, 1904, under the subject of the Preparatory School. Were still another year given to these examinations and the subjects required in the earlier portion of the secondary course presented at this time, the evils of the exclusive examination system would be reduced to a minimum. The unwholesome "cram" forced where the examination system almost exclusively prevails would largely disappear, while the influence of the examination simply as a means of setting standards might be of much value to the secondary schools.

I thoroughly believe that the work of this association in the formation of the Commission on Accredited Schools is incomplete until it gives to that commission or to another commission the work of formulating annual examinations on the units the commission has defined, unless indeed by thorough co-operation with the College Examination Board this work may be unnecessary in the special section of this association.

Theoretically, the secondary schools and their teachers should determine their own methods of work and should be able to decide upon the proper content of their instruction. But practically, every man knows, and I should suppose that every college man would know, that in the secondary schools of these eleven states are hundreds or thousands of teachers every year with little or no experience and with very indefinite ideas as to standards. The colleges are sending out such every year in droves, and they are recommending them to the schools.

Those whose work has been in larger cities and in the stronger schools can hardly appreciate how largely the work in smaller schools is done by this class of teachers. They should be helped and guided. This is the work of their principal or their superintendent. But these are sadly overworked men. If, then, the teacher grasped the idea that the college preparatory standard of work in any subject and the standard for the non-college preparatory student must be alike, and if he had set before him numerous sets of wisely prepared questions, questions set to test knowledge, not ignorance, to test ability to do something well, not merely an ability to memorize facts, it could not but be an inspiration to a grade of work that is lacking in hundreds of our schools to-day. Thus we should have the strengthening influence of college examinations without the danger of work degenerating into mere cram, as the large majority of school graduates would still be admitted to college upon certificate.

Furthermore the tendency of the certificate system is to disorganize and lower the standard of

college examinations. Their importance is decreased as the number taking them decreases. Many a youth has been admitted to college as a result of this disorganization whom his former teacher would not certify and who could never have been admitted were he subjected to a genuine test of his preparation for college work.

The systematic organization of such examinations upon the various units already defined by this association would serve to strengthen the work of the schools, to raise the standard of work in the college freshman year, indirectly to unify still further the work of the schools, to secure a better understanding between the schools and the colleges, and to strengthen rather than to weaken the position of the certificate system. As a detail, it should be said that such examinations should be held at various points, perhaps at the colleges themselves, in September as well as in June, if the plan is to work most harmoniously with the certificate system.

Just one more suggestion. It frequently happens that an inspector visiting a school finds the work in general well done, but finds teaching weak in some one subject. The teacher may be a barnacle whom the principal or the superintendent has vainly tried to remove. As the system now generally works, a school is either accepted or rejected. (Criticism may remove the weak teacher, or it may not.) The college accepts the certificate of the school as a whole or not at all. Nothing could be more wholesome than the statement sent to the school authorities that the certificate of a school would be accepted in all subjects but the weakly taught one, and that candidates

must pass examinations in that subject. Some colleges now require examinations in certain subjects. Cornell accepts certificates in everything but English, in which an examination must be passed. Williams has for years required examinations in French and German, while in general accepting certificates. Why should not all colleges exercise this liberty of choice in the certificate privilege? With this modification, the elevating influence of the college on school standards would be enormously strengthened. The lazy or the careless teacher,—and few schools fail to have one such at times,— would be put upon his mettle. The timid principal, who under the present system might be tempted to conceal the work of such a teacher from the college inspector, would have every reason to expose the weakness, and secure the aid of the college in emphasizing the need of a change. The great merit of the certificate system has been to bring the schools and colleges into closer relations, and especially to make the influence of the state universities felt in every part of their states. While freedom must be left to the towns as to courses and requirements for graduations, it should always be the province of the state university as the head of the school system to exercise a guiding influence over the secondary schools of the state.

With the growing adoption of the plan of official inspectors who are not merely cloistered scholars, but who are men thoroughly cognizant of the needs and the limitations of secondary school work, this influence must become stronger and stronger. But the school principals and superintendents throughout the state ought to have the right to demand the aid

of such inspectors in holding up the work of their schools to a standard that makes for real culture and strengthening discipline.

What has just been said is in the nature of comment on the work of the ninth annual meeting of this association. To-day we complete the first ten years of an association life. We can look back with reasonable satisfaction upon the results thus far definitely achieved. But much work remains to be done. The important work of the Commission on Accredited Schools is but one branch of our proper activities. The association is not a legislative body but as an advisory body its influence in the future can be very great. It has been suggested that the schools have the right to know what may be an "accredited college," in other words what institution shall be deemed worthy the title of college or university at all. The subject is a difficult one and well worthy of study by a competent committee. There is urgent need of legislation in regulation of the granting of academic degrees by really fraudulent institutions. Not long ago I received an offer of a Ph. D. or an LL. D. degree for the payment of a very modest fee. The work of the committee on which President Rogers worked most zealously might well be renewed and strengthened.

Something has been done in an advisory way toward the regulation of inter-scholastic and intercollegiate athletics, but much remains to be done. This association should be a potent influence for good in the struggle against the present demoralizing tendencies of organized sport.

But foremost in the various activities of the association should be all work that tends to a better understanding between the college and the secondary school. Each may learn something from the other. The ten years that are gone have brought the schools and colleges of these states very near to one another, and perhaps equally important, they have brought the institutions, both secondary and higher, or different states much nearer to one another. This broadening of our horizon enables us to see our neighbors' excellence, and by contrast shows us our own defects. Too much in the past, a Chinese wall of prejudice and often of self complacency followed the state boundary line. Much has been done here to break down the wall. It is hard to anticipate how much good to the states of this association will come from ten years more of the same earnest, quiet, unassuming labor, that have made the last decade fruitful of so much good.

The President then appointed the following committees:

(1) To recommend the time and place of the next meeting of the association: Principal E. W. Coy, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan; President C. F. Thwing, Western Reserve University; Professor C. A. Waldo, Purdue University; President John R. Kirk, Missouri State Normal School.

(2) To nominate officers: President W. S. Chaplin, Washington University; Inspector George B. Aiton, Minnesota; President D. R. Boyd, University of Oklahoma; Principal Edward L. Harris,

Cleveland Central High School; Principal J. O. Leslie, Ottawa, Illinois, High School.

(3) To audit the treasurer's report: President Charles S. Howe, Case School of Applied Science; Principal W. J. S. Bryan, St. Louis Central High School; Principal Geo. W. Benton, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis.

Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan, then presented the report of the delegates to the Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, as follows:

REPORT OF THE DELEGATES TO THE CONFERENCE ON UNIFORM ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH.

The Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English met at Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, on Wednesday, February 22, at 9:30. The following regularly accredited delegates were present: from the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Professor Mary A. Jordan, Smith College; Principal H. G. Buehler, Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Connecticut; Principal William T. Peck, Classical High School, Providence, Rhode Island; from the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland: Professor F. H. Stoddard, New York University; Principal Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.; Professor

F. T. Baker, Teachers' College; from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan; Professor M. W. Sampson, Indiana University; Professor G. R. Carpenter, Columbia University, acting as proxy for Principal C. W. French, Hyde Park High School, Chicago; from the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools: Professor C. W. Kent, University of Virginia; Professor W. P. Trent, Columbia University, and Professor J. B. Henneman, University of the South.

The conference organized by the election of Professor Stoddard as chairman and Mr. Farrand as secretary.

After the reading of a number of the replies to the circular sent out in behalf of the conference, and the expression of general opinions by several members of the conference, it was voted that the division of the requirement into books for reading and books for study should be continued. The requirement was then taken up in detail and it was finally voted that the following requirement for the years 1909, 1910 and 1911 should be recommended to the constituent bodies for adoption.

It was voted that a committee of four, consisting of Professor Stoddard, Professor Scott, Professor Trent and Mr. Peck, should be appointed to consider the advisability of adding selections from the Bible to the requirement, to consult with leading educators on the subject, and to report to the next conference.

On motion it was

Resolved, That the attention of the constituent bodies be called to the fact that measures should be taken to provide for a meeting of the conference on February 22, 1908, to insure concerted action with regard to Uniform Entrance Requirements in English for 1912 and the years immediately following.

Votes of thanks were passed to the authorities of Teachers' College for their hospitality and to the members of the local committee for their arrangements for the conference. The conference then adjourned.

UNIFORM REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH FOR 1909, 1910, 1911.

NOTE.— No candidate will be accepted in English whose work is notably defective in point of spelling, punctuation, idiom, or division into paragraphs.

a. READING AND PRACTICE.— A certain number of books will be recommended for reading, ten of which, selected as prescribed below, are to be offered for examination. The form of examination will usually be the writing of a paragraph or two on each of several topics, to be chosen by the candidate from a considerable number — perhaps ten or fifteen — set before him in the examination paper. The treatment of these topics is designed to test the candidate's power of clear and accurate expression, and will call for only a general knowledge of the substance of the

books. In every case knowledge of the book will be regarded as less important than the ability to write good English. In place of a part or the whole of this test, the candidate may present an exercise book, properly certified to by his instructor, containing compositions or other written work done in connection with the reading of the books. In preparation for this part of the requirement, it is important that the candidate shall have been instructed in the fundamental principles of rhetoric.

1909, 1910, 1911:

Group I (two to be selected).

Shakespeare's As You Like It, Henry V, Julius Cæsar, The Merchant of Venice, Twelfth Night.

Group II (one to be selected).

Bacon's Essays; Bunyan's The Pilgrim's Progress, Part I; The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers in the Spectator; Franklin's Autobiography.

Group III (one to be selected).

Chaucer's Prologue; Selections from Spenser's Faerie Queene; Pope's The Rape of the Lock; Goldsmith's The Deserted Village; Palgrave's Golden Treasury (First Series) Books II and III, with especial attention to Dryden, Collins, Gray, Cowper and Burns.

Group IV (two to be selected).

Goldsmith's The Vicar of Wakefield; Scott's Ivanhoe, Quentin Durward; Hawthorne's The House of the Seven Gables; Thackeray's Henry Esmond; Mrs. Gaskell's Cranford; Dickens' A Tale of Two

Cities; George Eliot's Silas Marner; Blackmore's Lorna Doone.

Group V (two to be selected).

Irving's Sketch Book; Lamb's Essays of Elia; De Quincey's Joan of Arc and The English Mail Coach; Carlyle's Heroes and Hero Worship; Emerson's Essays (Selected); Ruskin's Sesame and Lilies.

Group VI (two to be selected).

Coleridge's The Ancient Mariner; Scott's The Lady of the Lake; Byron's Mazeppa and The Prisoner of Chillon; Palgrave's Golden Treasury (First Series) Book IV, with special attention to Wordsworth, Keats and Shelley; Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome; Poe's Poems; Lowell's The Vision of Sir Launfal; Arnold's Sohrab and Rustum; Longfellow's The Courtship of Miles Standish; Tennyson's Gareth and Lynette, Lancelot and Elaine, and The Passing of Arthur; Browning's Cavalier Tunes, The Lost Leader, How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix, Evelyn Hope, Home Thoughts from Abroad, Home Thoughts from the Sea, Incident of the French Camp, The Boy and the Angel, One Word More, Herve Riel, Pheidippides.

b. Study and Practice.— This part of the examination presupposes the thorough study of each of the works named below. The examination will be upon subject-matter, form, and structure. In addition, the candidate may be required to answer questions involving the essentials of English grammar, and questions on the leading facts in those periods of English literary history to which the prescribed works belong.

The books set for this part of the examination will be:

1909, 1910, 1911: Shakespeare's Macbeth; Milton's Lycidas, Comus, L'Allegro, and Il Penseroso; Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America, or Washington's Farewell Address, and Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration; Macaulay's Life of Johnson, or Carlyle's Essay on Burns.

On motion the report was adopted.

Superintendent A. F. Nightingale introduced the following resolution which, on motion, was adopted:

Resolved, that the earnest thanks of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools be extended to its delegates to the Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, for their persistent efforts, now crowned with success, to enlarge the reading requirements for college admission.

Director Carman introduced the following resolution which, on motion, was adopted:

Resolved, that this association request the College Entrance Examination Board to prepare questions in English for 1906 and thereafter, based on the revised list of books for 1909-1912.

Principal E. L. Harris of the Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio, then presented the report of the Committee on Athletics, as follows:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS.

Your committee held a meeting at the close of the annual session of 1904, to take steps to carry out the instructions of the association, to have the rules

pertaining to athletic contests "printed and distributed to every university, college and secondary school in the north central states." The rules were prepared with a letter but by the time these made the entire circuit of the members of the committee it was so late in the season that it was thought best to postpone further action until the committee could meet again and make some necessary changes.

The committee recommends the following changes:

III. ELIGIBILITY OF CONTESTANTS.

Adopted in 1903 to read as follows:

Any person representing a school in any athletic contest whatever with any other school of the association must (1) be a *bona fide* student of the school which he represents; (2) he must have been such a student at least one year before such contest; (3) he must be carrying at least fifteen hours regular work upon which he has not previously received credit; (4) he must be maintaining a passing standard in scholarship in the said fifteen hours work; (5) in the secondary school he must not be more than twenty years of age; (6) he must not have played more than four years in the secondary school contests; (7) he must be an amateur sportsman; he must never have acted as an instructor in athletics; (8) no graduate of a secondary school shall be eligible to play in any interscholastic contest between secondary schools.

V. OTHER INSTITUTIONS NOT MEMBERS OF THIS ASSOCIATION.

To read as follows:

It shall be the duty of each institutional member of this association to require the observance of the

same regulations from other schools not members of the association before any contract takes place with said schools—provided, that in view of the action of the Chicago Conference in requiring of college freshmen a probationary period of half a year instead of a full year, institutions adhering to the above rule may for the present play with those requiring only a half year.

We further recommend that in every secondary school, college, and university the importance of athletics be recognized by the appointment of a regular teacher and instructor in the same who shall be a member of the faculty or teaching corps; we hold that the employment of professional coaches by student organizations or by outside parties is demoralizing and should be condemned.

Your committee asks for more time to print and to distribute the recommendations as ordered last year.

Respectfully,

EDWARD L. HARRIS
C. M. WOODWARD,
C. A. WALDO,
WM. J. S. BRYAN,
J. E. ARMSTRONG.
Committee.

It was moved by Principal Volland, and seconded by President Dabney that "three units as defined by this association" be substituted for "fifteen hours" in the report of the committee. By unanimous consent the report was referred back to the committee.

The committee reported the following amendment to the report:

Your Athletic Committee unanimously reports on the clauses referred back to them as follows:

(3) He must be carrying fifteen (15) hours per week; (4) he must be maintaining a passing standard in the said fifteen (15) hours, to read as follows:

(3) He must be carrying full work; (4) he must be maintaining a passing standard in scholarship in the said work.

Signed by the Committee.

On motion the report as thus amended was adopted.

[In accordance with the action of the association at last year's meeting the following complete report of the Committee on Athletics has been printed and given wide circulation—Secretary.]

CLEVELAND, OHIO, April, 1905.

DEAR SIR:

At the annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Cleveland, March 1902, it was voted that a committee consisting of three representatives from the colleges and three from the secondary schools be appointed to take into consideration questions relating to both intercollegiate and interscholastic contests and to report a uniform set of rules to regulate such contests.

At the next annual meeting, held in Chicago, the committee made a partial report; the report supplemented and amended in 1904 and 1905 and adopted by the association, is as follows:

Your committee recommends the following general plan for institutional members of this association:

ORGANIZATION.

That there be organized in each school an athletic association with an executive committee that shall have entire charge of all athletics of the school. At least two members of this committee shall be members of the faculty of the school. This committee (1) shall be responsible for all receipts and all expenditures of money, and shall cause their accounts to be audited twice each year; (2) shall pass upon and ratify all contracts and all contests with other institutions before the same are valid; (3) shall be the final judge in all questions in games and contests within its own school.

ELIGIBILITY OF CONTESTANTS.

Any person representing a school in any athletic contest whatever with any other school of this association must (1) be a *bona fide* student of the school which he represents; (2) he must have been a student at least one year before such contest; (3) he must be carrying full work; (4) he must be maintaining a passing standard in scholarship in the said work; (5) in the secondary school he must not be more than twenty (20) years of age; (6) he must not have played more than four years in the secondary-school contests; (7) he must be an amateur sportsman; he must never have acted as an instructor in athletics; (8) no graduate of a secondary school shall be eligible to play in any interscholastic contest between secondary schools.

CERTIFICATION.

(1) The head of each institution of this association or a member of the corps of instruction designated by him shall send a list of the representatives of his school in any and every contest, at least one (1) week before the event is to occur, to the chairman of the executive committee of that school and to the manager or captain of the team of the competing school. He shall certify over his signature that every representative is elgible to enter the contest in accordance with the above rules. No assumed names shall be certified to nor allowed in any report of the game. (2) A member of the faculty shall always accompany said representatives to the contests. (3) A failure to carry out the above or any mistake in certification shall be ground for forfeiture of said contest on the part of the institution making such failure. (4) A protest against any contestant to be entertained must be made at least three (3) days before the contest by registered letter or in person to the captain of the opposing team and to the chairman of the executive committee.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS NOT MEMBERS OF THIS ASSOCIATION.

It shall be the duty of each institutional member of this association to require the observance of the same regulations from other schools not members of the association before any contest takes place with said school, provided, that in view of the action of the Chicago Conference in requiring of college freshmen a probationary period of half a year instead of a full year, institutions adhering to the above rule

may, for the present, play with those requiring only a half year.

SENATE AND COURT OF APPEALS.

The committee also recommends that in a city where there are several schools of the same class a senate be formed composed of two (2) members of the faculty of each school represented in interscholastic contests, to which all questions or disputes not otherwise settled shall be referred for settlement; that there be a standing committee of six (6) appointed by this association, which shall comprise a court of appeals to which questions and disputes of institutional members of this association in reference to athletic contests may be appealed. The judgment of this court shall be final.

1. That this association earnestly recommends the general adoption of three probationary years in athletics — first, one entire year at the beginning of the secondary period; second, one entire year at the beginning of the collegiate period; third, one entire year at the beginning of the graduate period.

2. That in case a student migrates during any of the three periods mentioned he shall remain in his new institution one year before participating in any intercollegiate or interscholastic contest.

3. That natural groups of institutions having athletic relations with each other should publish annuals giving, first, business publicity, and second, permanent athletic records.

4. That the members of this association pledge themselves to use their influence with state teachers' associations and state college associations and other educational organizations, including faculties of uni-

versities, colleges, and secondary schools to secure their support in bringing about the adoption of these resolutions, especially the first and second.

5. That this committee be empowered to act with other college and secondary associations, east and west, to secure the adoption of the three probationary-years principle.

6. We further recommend that in every secondary school, college and university the importance of athletics be recognized by the appointment of a regular teacher and instructor in the same who shall be a member of the faculty or teaching corps; we hold that the employment of professional coaches by student organizations or by outside parties is demoralizing and should be condemned.

In addition, Dean Woodward presented the following which was adopted:

Having adopted certain rules intended to eliminate some of the evils attending interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics, it becomes us to take definite steps to secure a general adoption of said rules by local faculties.

To this end we recommend that the committee be authorized to have the new rules printed and distributed to every university, college and secondary school in the North Central States, with two requests in each case:

(1) That the rules be brought before the faculty for adoption.

(2) That the action of the faculty, of whatever nature, be at once reported to the chairman of this committee so that due progress may be made known to this association next year.

Finally we suggest that with a view to successful united action along these lines it be declared the duty of every member of this association to champion to the best of his ability the adoption and faithful observance of these rules by the local authorities.

In accordance with the last resolution will you bring these rules before your faculty or governing body; will you kindly report the action of said faculty or governing body to the member of the committee designated to attend to the correspondence from your state, noting at what time you can put the rules into force if adopted?

EDWARD L. HARRIS, Ohio and Michigan.
Central High School, Cleveland, O.

C. A. WALDO, Indiana and Minnesota.
Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

A. A. STAGG, Illinois and Eastern States.
University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

C. M. WOODWARD, Missouri and Kansas.
Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

J. E. ARMSTRONG, Iowa and Wisconsin.
Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.

W. J. S. BRYAN, Colorado, Nebraska and Oklahoma.
Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.

A report of the Commission on Accredited Schools was then presented by President Charles F. Thwing, Chairman of the Committee on Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree, as follows:

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE.

Your Committee is acting under a vote passed at the eighth annual meeting in 1903 "that a committee

of five be appointed to take into consideration the advisibility of extending the work of the commission so as to include accredited colleges and to determine what should be the requirements for the bachelor's degree." Under a vote passed at the ninth meeting the report was discussed and accepted, and it was voted that the committee be continued with the view of covering more fully the question submitted to it by the commission.

The report is concerned, first, with a brief view touching the history of the A. B. degree; second, it includes a statement of what the degree should represent in the person receiving it; third, it includes a statement of the requirements for the degree touching, (a) admission to college, and (b) graduation from college. The statement regarding graduation from college refers both to hours or units and also to the content of the course. Fourth, a statement is made regarding the contribution which different subjects of study make in constituting the results which the degree should represent. This statement has to do with both the advantages which belong in common to all subjects and also to the unique advantages of certain subjects. A fifth part relates to what may be called professional concessions or combinations. The sixth, and concluding part of the report, touches upon inspection of colleges.

The history of the A. B. degree is obscure. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the degree stood for the passing of certain examinations, and also carried along with itself the right to teach. From the beginning, in this country, the degree has represented usually four years of undergraduate

study. For about two centuries it was the only degree given. Near the middle of the last century the inclusion of scientific studies in the curriculum promoted the introduction of the B. S. degree. The enlargement also of the course of study outside of scientific subjects, caused the introduction of other degrees. The chief of these were the degree of B. L. and of Ph. B. That, however, the degree of B. A., is still dominant, is indicated in the fact that the report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1902 shows that there were granted 5,446 degrees of B. A., 774 degrees of Ph. B., and 246 degrees of B. L. The present sentiment and movement, moreover, seems to be in favor of the consolidation of degrees.

Second, in respect to what the degree should represent in the person of the one receiving it, it is superfluous to multiply interpretations. It may, however, be simply and safely said that the man who bears the degree should represent at least four elements; he should be a student, a scholar, a thinker, and a gentleman.

He should be a student; intellectual labor should be a habit. Problems of all sorts, mechanical, social, political and other, should be, in their primary relations, problems for the mind. His sympathies with studies of all kinds should be warm as well as large. He should be an intellectual worker.

Moreover, he should be a scholar. His learning may be either broad and slight, or narrow and deep. It may touch a few subjects profoundly, or many lightly. He is at least to have an acquaintance with the field of knowledge. He therefore is to know, at least in a general way, the results which have been

achieved, the methods which are pursued, the forces used, and the aims which are still dominant. He should know where his learning ends, where his ignorance begins, and also he should know the nature of that large domain of twilight knowledge and ignorance, where humility most becometh the human spirit. He is ever to be sympathetic with scholarship.

He is, furthermore, to have the quality and power of orderly and exact thinking, to see, to compare, to infer. To see truth, to relate truths, to infer new truths, to judge, to reason, to assess facts at a just value, to compare fact with fact.

These are his functions as a thinking college man. He is to possess a sense of relations; he is to be able to disentangle the complex, to divide the essential from the accidental, to induce principles from facts and to apply principles to conditions. He is to be thoughtful as well as thinking; he is to be a searcher for truth in some field, as well as a conservator of truths known. He is, furthermore, to be a gentleman. If these four great results are to be interpreted as aims rather than as specific attainments, yet their presence as aims, in the man having a degree, represents and obliges a certain appreciation and possession of them.

The third statement is concerned with the requirements which the colleges make regarding the methods and means for securing these great results.

The following tabulations have been made from the study of college calendars. An attempt has been made to unify the various systems of units and semester or term or year hours of the various institutions. In admission requirements, the term unit as already

defined by the North Central Association has been adopted. This means a study prescribed for one school year of at least thirty-five weeks for at least four or five periods per week of prepared work.

In the requirements for graduation the semester hour has been made the basis of comparison. This is applied to a study pursued for one semester or half year for one hour a week.

A group has been made of the institutions having membership in the association; and a second group includes other leading institutions of the country.

The tabulation involved several difficulties. Many institutions have three terms in the year rather than two semesters. In the case of such institutions, the "term hour" has been rendered into approximately equivalent "semester hours." In some institutions the "point system" is used. This presents a still greater problem in adjustment to a uniform scheme.

Many catalogues are vague or indefinite in statement of requirements, and in some decided inconsistencies are found.

In general, Algebra through quadratics, has been counted as 1½ units; Plane Geometry, 1 unit; and Solid Geometry as ½ unit. Greek, including three or four books of Xenophon and three books of Homer, has been counted as three units, although some institutions seem to regard it as only two units. The generally accepted English requirements for college are counted as three units. In a few cases where Greek as an admission requirement is optional with Latin, only Latin has been named on the assumption that Greek would practically never be elected.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Albion College,	15 units; Math. 3, Eng. 3, Science 1, Language 2, Optional 6.	120 hrs. No. Spec.
Beloit College,	14 units; Language 2, Eng. 2, Hist. 1, Math. 2, Science 1, Elective 6.	128 hrs. Must have a major subject continuous.
University of Cincinnati,	16 units; Eng. 3, Math. 2, Science 1, Hist. 1, 2 languages (Latin 3 or 4, Greek 2 or 3, French 2 or 4, German 2 or 4.) Added unit in Eng. for those without Latin and Greek.	120 hrs.; Eng. 6, Science 10, Philosophy or Psychology 8. Reading knowledge of two languages.
University of Chicago,	15 units; Latin 4 (or 2), Math. 3 (or 2½), Greek 2, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Physics 1, Fr. or Ger. 1.	Jr. Col. 60 hrs., 20 in Lat. or Greek, 10 Mod. Lang., 20 Math., Science, and Eng.; Sen. Col. 60 hrs. elective.
Colorado College,	16 units; Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Lat. 2, Fr. or Ger. 2, Science 2, Elective 4.	120 hrs.; Major required; 48 Lang., Math. 8.
University of Colorado,	16 units; Language 4 (Latin preferred), Eng. 3, Hist. 2, Science 2, Math. 2, Elective 3.	130 hrs.; Math. or Ancient Lang. or Science 10, Eng. 10, Major 20.
Cornell College,	15 units; Eng. 3, Hist. 2, Math. 2½, Science 1½, Latin 4, Greek, Fr. or Ger. 2.	128 hrs.; Math. 10, Lang. 30.
Denison University,	15 units; Latin 4, Greek 2, Eng. 3, Math. 3, Hist. 2, Physics 1.	123½ hrs.; Greek and Latin 2 years.
Drury College,	14 units; Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Hist. 2, Latin 4, Greek 2½.	120 hrs.; Greek and Latin 2 years.
University of Illinois,	14 units; Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Language 3, Elective 4½.	130 hrs.; including 5 Military Drill, 2 Physical Training.
Indiana University,	16 units; Eng. 6, Math. 6, one language 3, Hist. 1, Science 1, Elective 6, (Recommended that electives consist of extension of others.)	120 hrs; Eng. 15, Math. 15, Science 15, Language 30.
State University of Iowa,	13½ units (?); Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Math. 2½, Greek 3, Latin 4, Ancient Hist. 1, Science 1.	120 hrs. (?) (years specified), Greek 10, Lat. 4, Eng. 4, Math. 4.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Iowa College,	15 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, Greek 3, Latin 4, Ancient History 1, Science 1.	120 hrs.; 1 Major in Latin or Greek 5 hrs., 1 Minor in Latin, and 1 in Greek.
University of Kansas,	15 units; Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Science 2, Hist. 1, Language 3, Optional 4½.	120 hrs.; Rhetoric 8, Eng. 4, Math. 4, Lang. 6, Phys. Science 3, Biological Sci. 3, Hist. 2.
Lake Forest College,	13½ units; Latin 2, Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Science 1, Elective 4.	140 hrs.; Lang. 20, Math. 20, Eng. 10, Science 25 hrs. No Latin or Greek required.
Knox College,	15 units; Latin 4, Eng. 2½, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Physics 1, Optional 4.	120 hrs.; 4 groups — (1) Latin and Greek; (2) Latin, Fr. or Ger.; (3) Latin, more Modern Lang.; (4) Lat., Hist., Science.
Miami University,	15 units; Eng. 3, Lat. 2, Math. 3, Physics 1, Hist. 1, Optional 5.	120 hrs.; 30 hrs. of Lang.; 3 years of some one.
University of Michigan,	15 units; Math. 3, Eng. 3, Physics 1, Optional 8, (of which 2 must be Latin, Greek, French, or German.)	120 hrs.
Milwaukee-Downer College,	15½ units; Latin 4, Greek, or French, or German 2, Math. 3, Physics 1, Eng. 3, Hist. 2.	120 hrs.; Latin 10, other languages 18.
University of Minnesota,	15 units; Eng. 4, Math. 3, Optional 8. No foreign language work necessary, but 1 unit of Latin may substitute for 1 of English.	126 hrs.; at least 12 hrs. of each of 3 subjects, one of which must be English or foreign language.
University of Missouri,	14 units; after 1906, 15 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, foreign language 2, Hist. 1, Science 1.	120 hrs.; must have 12 hrs. in each of 4 subjects, and 24 hrs. in a fifth subject.
Missouri Valley College,	15 units; Latin 2, Greek 2, English 2, Math. 2, Science 1, optional 3.	128 hrs.; ⅜ elective. Indefinite amount of Latin and Greek in first 2 years.
University of Nebraska,	14½ units; Math. 3, Eng. 2, Hist. 1, Latin 2 (or more), Added Lang. 1, optional 5½.	125 hrs.; 20 hrs. in Language.
Northwestern University,	15 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, Hist. 1, Physics 1, Foreign Language 4, optional 3.	120 hrs.; 8 hrs. Lat. or Greek, 22 hrs. of Lang. altogether, Math. 8, or 10, Sci. 6 or 8, Hist. etc., 6, Eng. 8.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Oberlin College,	15 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, Lang. 4 (Latin or Greek 2), Hist. 1, Sci. 1, optional 3.	120 hrs. No Greek or Latin. Almost entirely elective.
Ohio State University,	15 units; Eng. 2, Hist. 2, Math 3, Science 2, Lang. (Lat., Gr., French, German, Spanish) 6, or 4 with 2 optional.	120 hrs.. Degree A. B.. ½ prescribed work. 4 hrs. Eng., 16 other lang., 12 Math. or Sci., 6 Hist., etc. Two Freshman studies must be continued through Soph. yr., one Soph. study through Jr. yr., one Jr. study through Senior year.
Ohio Wesleyan University,	16 units; Eng. 3, Hist. 2, Math. 3, Latin 4, Greek 3, Elective 1.	120 hrs.; Latin 18 or 9, Greek 18 or 9, German 15. Gives A. B., B. S., B. L.
University of Oklahoma,	12½ units; Eng. 3, Lat. 2, Math. 2½, Hist. 2, Physics 1, Other Science 1, Optional 2.	120 hrs.; Eng. 7, Fr. or Ger. 8, Hist. 4. Must include major 20 hrs., 2 years.
Olivet College,	15 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, Latin 2, Hist. 1, Phys. 1, Optional 5.	128 hrs.; seven prescribed groups, largely elective. No absolute language requirement.
Park College,	Impossible of tabulation.	Tabulation impossible. Gr. and Lat. 1st year; Gr. or Lat. 2d year.
Ripon College,	14½ units; Eng. 3, Lat. 4, Math. 2½, Physics 1, Hist. 2, Greek or German 2.	
Wabash College,	16 units; Eng. 3, Math. 3, Lang. 3, Hist. 1, Science 1, Elective 5.	125⅓ hrs.; A. B. only. Language 24 (of which 8 must be ancient), Math. 8, Hist. 8, Sci. 16.
Washington University,		120 hrs.
Western Reserve University,	16 units; Latin 4, Math. 3, Eng. 3, Greek, or Fr., or Ger. 3, Physics 1, Chem. 1, Hist. 1.	123 hrs.; Latin 6.
University of Wisconsin,	14½ units; Math. 2½, Eng. 2, Hist. 1, Science 1, Foreign Language 2, Optional 6.	120 hrs.; Eng. 6, Lang. 24 (16 if four units are given for admission.) A major of 20 hrs. minimum after Freshman year. Thesis on major subjects.

INSTITUTIONS IN NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

INSTITUTIONS REQUIRING LATIN AND GREEK FOR ADMISSION.

	LATIN (UNITS)	GREEK (UNITS)
University of Chicago,	4 (or 2)	2
Denison University,	4	2
Drury College,	4	2½
State University of Iowa,	4	3 (May be done in college).
Iowa College,	4	3
Missouri Valley College,	3	2 (?)
Ohio Wesleyan University,	4	3
Park College,	4	2

REQUIRING LATIN.

	LATIN UNITS.	
Colorado College,	2	Fr. or Ger. 2.
Cornell College,	4	Fr., or Ger., or Greek 2.
Knox College,	4	
Lake Forest College,	2	Other languages 2.
Miami University,	2	
Milwaukee-Downer College,	4	Other language 2.
University of Nebraska,	2	Other language 1.
Northwestern University,	4	(or Greek) Other language 2.
Oberlin College,	2	(or Greek) Other language 2.
Olivet College,	2	
Ripon College,	4	Greek or German 2.
Washington University,	4	Other language 2.
Western Reserve University,	4	Other language 3.

REQUIRING LANGUAGE, BUT NOT NECESSARILY LATIN OR GREEK.

	UNITS.	
Albion College,	2	
Beloit College,	2	
University of Cincinnati,	4	or 8.
University of Colorado,	4	Latin preferred.
University of Illinois,	2	For A. B. in Literature and Arts; not for A. B. in Science.
Indiana University,	3	in one language.
University of Kansas,	3	
University of Michigan,	2	
University of Missouri,	2	
Ohio State University,	6	or 4.
Wabash College,	3	

REQUIRING NO LANGUAGE.

University of Minnesota.

INSTITUTIONS NOT MEMBERS OF NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Amherst College,	13½ units; Latin 4, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Greek, or French, or German 2, Optional 1.	116 hrs.; 1 yr. or 6 hrs. of Lat. or Greek 1 yr., or 6 hrs. of Math. Other work elective.
Boston University,	14½ units; Latin 4, Greek, or French, or German 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Eng. 3, 3d lang. 1.	120 hrs.; Latin 6, French 4, German 4, Math. 6, Hist. 4, Eng. 4, Economics 4, Science 4.
Bowdoin College,	13½ units; Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Lat. 4, Hist. 1; Elective Greek, French or German 3.	Requirements indefinitely expressed. No Latin or Greek required.
Brown University,	13½ units; Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Lat. 4, Greek, or French, or German 2, Elective 1. (Units adopted from "point" system.)	120 hrs.; Ancient Language 6, Mod. Lang. 6, Math. 4.
Colgate University,	14½ units; Eng. 3, Lat. 4, Greek 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Physiology 1.	134 hrs. approximately; Lat. 12, Greek 13, French 6, German 6, Eng. 8 (approximately), Math. 9 (approximately), Phys. or Chem. 7 (approximately.)
Columbia University,	14½ units; Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Lang. 4, Optional 2½. (Alg. and Pl. Geom. counted by University as 3 units.)	120 hrs.; Eng. 10, Fr. or Ger. 3, Lat. 11 (elementary, if not presented for admission), Math. 6, Hist. 6, Physiology 3, Economics 3, Science 3. Certain subjects may be presented for admission instead of taken in College.
Cornell University,	14 units; Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Elective 7. (At least 6 lang., modern or ancient.)	120 hrs.; no restrictions.
Dartmouth College,	13½ units; Lat. 4, Hist. 1, Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Greek 3, or French or German 2, and Science 1.	122 hrs.; Lat. 6, Eng. 6, Math. 6, another language 6.
Harvard University,	16½ units (approximately); Lat. 3, Eng. 3, French or German 2, Hist. 1, Math. 2½, Science 1, Optional 4.	105 hrs. approx.; 17 or 17½ courses in general of 3 hrs. each. Work entirely elective.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Johns Hopkins University,	14½ units; Math. 2½, Lat. 4, Greek 3, or French *and* German 3, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Science 1. This admits to special course. Added year required for full matriculation.	120 hrs. (including special year before regular matriculation.) The course regularly includes but 3 years, Lat. 6, Math. 8, Greek, or German, or French 6 approx., added language 6.
Mount Holyoke College,	14½ units; Lat. 4, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Greek, or French, or German 3. Third language, or Physics, or Chem. 1.	120 hrs.; Lat. 8, second lang. 8, Math. 3, Eng. 8, Science 8, Biblical Literature 2.
University of Pennsylvania,	13½ units; Lat. 4, Greek 3, Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Hist. 1.	120 hrs.; Latin 6, Greek 6.
Princeton University,	15½ units; Latin 4, Greek 3, Eng. 3, French or Ger. 2, Math. 2½, Hist. 1.	121 hrs.; Lat. 12, Greek 12, Math. 11, Physics 5, Mod. Lang. 2.
Smith College,	14½ units; Latin (or Greek) 4, Greek, or French, or German 3, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1.	104 hrs.; Latin or Greek 6, French or Ger. 6, Math. or Logic 6, Physics or Chem. 6, Eng. 4, Hist. 4, Bib. Lit. 2, Philosophy 3.
Syracuse University,	14 or 14½ units; Lat. 4, Greek 3, Eng. 3. Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Optional ½ or 1.	120 hrs.; Lat. 6, Greek 6, Mod. Lang. 6, Math. 8, (one "major" 24 hours); (one minor 12 hrs.).
Trinity College,	13½ units; Lat. 4, Greek 3, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1.	120 hrs.; Lat. 6, Greek 6, French or German 6, Eng. 12, Math. 6, Science 6, added lang. 6.
Tufts College,	14 units; Lat. 4, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, Math. 2½, Elective 6½.	128 hrs.; 18 hrs. in 3 languages (Latin, Greek, French, German, or Hebrew.) Must have 18 hrs. in "major" and 18 in collateral subjects.
Union University,	14½ units; Lat. 4, Greek 3, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Geography and Physiology 1.	128 hrs.; Lat. 14, Greek 14, Math. 7, approx., French 6, German 6.
Vassar College,	14½ units; Lat. 4, Greek, or French, or German 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, third lang., or Physics, or Chemistry 1.	118 or 120 hrs.; Latin or Greek 6, Mod. Lang. 6, Science 6, Math. 6, Eng. 6, Hist. 6, Philosophy or Psychology 3, Ethics 3.

	Admission Figures indicate units.	Graduation Figures indicate semester hours.
Wellesley College,	14½ units; Lat. 4, Greek, or French, or German 3, Math. 2½, Eng. 3, Hist. 1, third lang., or Chemistry, or Physics 1.	114 hrs.; Math. 6 or 8, Lang. 6 or 8, Science 12 or 14. Definite groupings require continuous work for period of years.
Wesleyan University,	13½ units; Lat. 4, Greek 3, Hist. 1, Math. 2½, Eng. 3.	120 hrs. approx.; Latin 8, Math. 8, Modern Language 6.
Williams College,	13½ or 14½ units; Lat. 4, Eng. 3, Math. 2½, Hist. 1, Greek, or French, or German 3. (Third Language 1, or Greek must be taken.)	124 hrs. (or 118 if extra Modern Language is presented for admission.) Major of 15 hrs. required.
Yale University,	13½ units; Lat. 4, Math. 2½, French or German 1, Eng. 3, and Greek 3, or German 3, or (Math. 1½ and French 1, and German 1), or French 1 and German 2.	120 hrs. (?); Latin and Greek may be omitted entirely.

INSTITUTIONS NOT MEMBERS OF NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

REQUIRING LATIN AND GREEK.

Colgate University,	4	3
Princeton University,	4	3
University of Pennsylvania,	4	3
Syracuse University,	4	3
Trinity College,	4	3
Union University,	4	3
Wesleyan University,	4	3

REQUIRING LATIN.

Amherst College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 2.
Boston University,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Bowdoin University,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Brown University,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 2.
Dartmouth College,	4	Gr. 3, or Fr. or Ger. 2.
Harvard University,	4	Fr. or Ger. 2.
Johns Hopkins University,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Mount Holyoke College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Smith College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Tufts College,	4	
Vassar College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Wellesley College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Williams College,	4	Gr. or Fr. or Ger. 3.
Yale University,	4	Other language 3.

REQUIRING LANGUAGE, BUT NOT NECESSARILY LATIN OR GREEK.

Columbia University,	4	
Cornell University,	6	
LATIN.		GREEK.
(UNITS.)		(UNITS.)
LATIN.		GREEK.
(UNITS.)		(UNITS.)
LATIN.		LATIN.
GREEK.		GREEK.

A careful study of the requirements of different institutions shows almost amazing diversity of requirements. A comparatively small number of institutions still insist on Latin and Greek in the preparatory period. The recent abandonment by Yale of the Greek requirement is a significant fact. In general, the East has been more conservative than the West. Many institutions have carried the elective principle as far as seems possible, and it may be doubted whether they have not passed the safe limit of educational values.

It is possible in many institutions to enter having had 2½ or 3 units of Mathematics, 3 units in English, and 2 units in one other subject, and then after four years of browsing over the entire range of knowledge with no sustained effort in any one direction to obtain the A. B. degree. This should be made impossible. The undisputed merit of the classical curriculum is that it requires sustained effort and definite achievement in one direction at least. The elective system should be so administered as to secure sustained effort and definite achievement.

Some institutions think they have in good degree gained this result by the group system; others, by a system of majors, and yet others by the supervision of electives by a committee of the faculty. The important thing is that in some way it be secured.

Fourth: In respect to the contribution which different subjects make toward the great results which the man who has received the A. B. degree embodies, your Committee recognized that a prolonged statement would be superfluous. It is simply necessary to state that the pursuit of each study of

the curriculum represents results in the character of the student which every other study represents. Each study stands for intellectual discipline; each for the development of the power of interpretation; each trains the quality of exactness in discrimination; each makes an offering toward the constitution of the scholar and of the thinker.

But there are certain results which are more or less unique to the specific subjects. In general, language trains the power of interpretation; but each language offers, through the knowledge of the nation of which it is the speech or literature, a certain acquaintance with its people. The two ancient languages which are constantly studied are in a sense the basis of modern civilization. A knowledge of the Greek and Roman life, constitution, character, is borne through a literature. It would also be acknowledged that Greek literature has a special relation to the knowledge of our modern literature, in particular in its dramatic relationships. A knowledge of the Greek drama is essential to a proper understanding of the French drama. The kinship of the German and of the English is so fundamental and vital that a knowledge of German is essential to an understanding of our English speech. Furthermore, German aids in appreciation of the social, economic, legal, and religious usages of our English people. The French language above most others, offers a unique advantage in absolute clarity of expression. A knowledge of English literature stands for the purest and strongest ethical inspirations. No literature is so morally clean as the English. The training in composition embodies a most forceful method,

not only for clear, accurate expression, but also for clearness and accuracy in thinking. History produces, among many results, what may be called historical mindedness. It represents a training in the sense of impartiality. It embodies a largeness in vision, in interpretation, in judgment. Mathematics offers a discipline in absolute accuracy and also in a sense of relationships. Economics, political science, present man as a social and political being. Economics represents not only a knowledge of men, but also of man. The sciences, taken as a body, bear what is called the scientific method to the student, but each also represents a unique contribution. Chemistry stands for insight into the nature, structure and constitution of matter. Physics stands for the laws of matter. Biology represents an insight into the organic world. It represents a transition from lower to the highest forms of life. Geology, the crown of the other sciences, is concerned with the whole history of the earth,— biological, physical, chemical. Philosophy, in turn, represents the science of man himself. It is a form of biology. The illustrations of its truth are found in man. It represents, too, the methods in which the race has discussed its lasting problems from the beginning.

Thus each of the great subjects of the course offers general and unique contributions to the student who pursues it. Each of these subjects embodies a specific element in the contribution offered for the making of the student, the thinker, the scholar, and the gentleman.

Yet although each subject does offer a specific contribution, and possibly because it does, your Com-

mittee is inclined to emphasize the value of the continuous pursuit of a special study or of a group of studies. The evils of heterogeneous or disconnected choice are evident. The first approach of the student to a study is through its simple elements. Such a pursuit does not conduct to strength and largeness of intellectual training. The largest worthiness in intellectual results is secured through prolonged and careful attention to the severer and more fundamental parts of a subject. Either by means of the group system or by certain limitations of the free choice of studies, we believe that better results are secured. A certain degree of general choice may be allowed, but the general choice should be made consistent with a certain prolonged and special pursuit of great subjects.

Fifth: A further element of the requirements for the A. B. degree refers to what may be called professional concessions or combinations. Such concessions or combinations seem to be inevitable. Their imperative character renders the approval of them by your Committee somewhat superfluous. The Committee, however, is prepared to approve of them so far forth as to believe that the college should yield with gracefulness to the conditions. Such combinations should be allowed. The student may or may not take advantage of the permission. In not a few cases the authorities may advise him not to take advantage of them. In others it may proffer advice to the opposite intent. Such concessions or combinations, therefore, come to belong to the general freedom of elective studies. This condition has arisen from the increase in requirements for admission to

college and in the increased requirements for admission to and for graduation from the professional school, especially of medicine and of law. At the present time, colleges in this association are adopting several methods of concession or of combination. One method consists in the devotion of the first year of the professional course as the last year of the undergraduate. This method is applied in universities which contain professional schools as well as the undergraduate college. One method is embodied in allowing the undergraduate senior to take a part of his work in the medical or law school, usually about one-half, which work counts toward both the bachelor's and the professional degree. A further method consists, in case the college contains no professional school, in allowing the undergraduate senior to enter a professional school under the general direction of his college and to count the first year taken in the professional school as the last year in the undergraduate course. Wabash is an eminent example of this method. (This question has relation to the discussion under *Three.*)

Sixth: It has been suggested that the Committee draw up what might be called a list of accredited colleges co-ordinate with a list of accredited fitting schools. The Committee is loath to make such a classification. The attempt is beset by serious difficulties.

The Committee, however, would remind the members that the association is acting under two votes, the value of which for securing such a desired list may be great. One of these votes is to the effect that no college in the association shall give the de-

gree of Doctor of Philosophy for less than two years of study, and further, that no college in the association shall admit students to the Freshman year with less than fifteen units of work in preparation.

Respectfully submitted,

CHARLES F. THWING, *Chairman.*
J. B. ANGELL,
JAMES H. BAKER,
F. L. BLISS,

31 March 1905 *Committee.*

Second Session, Friday Afternoon.

The Association was called to order at 2:30 o'clock P. M. by President Bliss. The Commission on Accredited Schools through its Chairman, Professor H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago, presented the following report, which was, on motion, adopted.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

In presenting the report of the Commission I beg to call attention first to the action of the Board of Inspectors as approved by the Commission. The list of accredited schools for the year 1905-6 is herewith submitted. You will note in the list, in the first place, the omission of certain schools that were on the list for the current year. These omissions do not necessarily imply that the schools in question have failed to conform to the standard. In some cases the school authorities have neglected to make the report which the Commission requires, and the Board of Inspectors, in the absence of the specific reports has been unwilling to act. In some instances this failure to report is due to a change of school authorities; in other instances doubtless to indifference. In either case inasmuch as the list is prepared annually, it has been necessary to omit the schools in question.

It will be noted also that the Board has added to the list a considerable number of schools. In some states the number being practically doubled. The increase will be especially noted in Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin and Illinois.

The Commission has been much interested in reports of the Inspectors as to the practical working of the plan in the schools. In general it may be said that the Commission found in a number of states that the operation of inspection has been an unquestionable incentive to improvement in the schools. In several states the school authorities have taken action to supply things which were lacking to make their schools conform to the Commission's standard. In some cases the authorities have been willing to reduce the number of classes assigned to teachers, and the number of students in classes. On the whole I am satisfied that the Commission has reason for encouragement and has good ground to feel that the tendency of its work has been towards lifting the standard of work and towards unifying the policy of secondary schools in most of the states concerned in the Association.

Herewith is submitted the report of the Board of Inspectors, as presented by its Chairman, Professor Whitney.

The Commission has given some attention to modifying and improving the definitions in some subjects. Subcommittees are given further time to improve the formulation of the definition in Zoölogy, Shop-work, Drawing, Physical Culture, and in Commercial subjects. It is expected that the Commission at the next meeting of the Association will be pre-

pared with modifications, therefore, in those subjects.

In order that the definitions may be under constant and careful consideration the Commission has constituted standing committees in all the respective subjects. These committees are expected to report annually to the Commission.

The Commission has voted also that schools outside of the states represented by the Association may be added to the accredited list and recommended by the Board of Inspectors.

The committee assigned to take into consideration the advisability of extending the work of the commission so as to include accredited colleges and determine what shall be the requirements for the Bachelor's degree presented a preliminary report which was submitted at this morning's session directly to the Association without action by the Commission. This report of the committee which was read by its Chairman, President Thwing of the Western Reserve University, was of the nature of detailed information as to the requirements for the degree in a variety of colleges.

It is understood that the Commission will take up the subject matter of this report at its next meeting.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF INSPECTORS FOR 1905.

To the Commission on Accredited Schools:

Your Board of Inspectors desire to report that they have held two sessions and have given careful

consideration to the work assigned them by your honorable body, and herewith submit resolutions that have governed them in their action, together with a list of schools. The following inspectors were present:

Densmore, Beloit College; Butler, University of Chicago; Brown, University of Iowa; Hollister, University of Illinois; Hicks, University of Cincinnati; Elliff, University of Missouri; Whitney, University of Michigan; Aiton, State Inspector of Minnesota; James, Northwestern University; Tressler, University of Wisconsin; Boyd, Ohio State University.

There were no representatives from Indiana, Kansas or Nebraska. The inspector from Colorado was unavoidably detained, but sent complete reports.

The standards that have governed the Board in their actions have been the same as those adopted last year with the following modifications:

Resolved, that the word "enrollment" in Rule 3, be changed so as to read: "Average number belonging."

Resolved, that where there is any reasonable doubt, the board will take the doubt as grounds sufficient to justify rejection.

Resolved, that the McKinley School, St. Louis, Mo., be continued on the list, but that in the future no school will be accepted that has not in actual operation the full four years' course.

The following constitute the list of schools:

COLORADO: Cannon City; Cripple Creek; Denver, West Side; Durango; Ft. Collins; Golden; Grand Junction; Greely; La Junta; Leadville; Pueblo, Central; Pueblo, District No. 1; Trinidad; Victor.

ILLINOIS: Aurora (East); Aurora (West); Bloomington; Chicago:—Austin, Calumet, Englewood, Hyde Park, Jefferson, John Marshall, Joseph Medill, Lake, Lake View, North West Division, Richard T. Crane, Manual Training, Robert A. Waller, South Chicago, Wendell Phillips, William McKinley; Decatur; De Kalb Tp.; Dixon; Elgin; Evanston Tp.; J. Sterling Morton Tp.; Joliet Tp.; La Salle, Peru Tp.; Lyons Tp. (La Grange); Moline; Oak Park Tp.; Ottawa Tp.; Peoria; Pontiac Tp.; Princeton; Rockford; Rock Island; Sterling Tp.; Thornton Tp. (Harvey.)

INDIANA: Elkhart City; Fort Wayne; Howe Military School; LaPorte; Michigan City; Richmond; South Bend; Shortridge and Manual Training, Indianapolis.

IOWA: Boone; Burlington; Capital Park; Cedar Rapids; Charles City; Clinton; Corning; Council Bluffs; Davenport; Des Moines, East, North, West; Fort Dodge; Grinnell; Iowa City, Le Mars; Mason City; Muscatine; Ottumwa; Sheldon; Sioux City.

MICHIGAN: Albion; Ann Arbor; Alpena; Adrian; Benton Harbor Collegiate Institute; Battle Creek; Bay City; Charlotte; Bessemer; Calumet; Coldwater; Detroit:-Western, Eastern, Central, Home and Day, Detroit University; Delray; Escanaba; Ferris Institute; Flint; Grand Rapids Central; Hancock; Ionia; Ishpeming; Iron Mountain; Jackson; Kalamazoo; Lansing; Lake Linden; Marshall; Ludington; Manistee; Menominee; Michigan Seminary (Kalamazoo); Muskegon; Michigan Military Academy (Orchard Lake); Mt. Clemens; Marquette; Negaunee; Port Huron; Niles; Pontiac; Petoskey; Sault Ste.

Marie; Saginaw:—West Side, East Side; St. Joseph; Traverse City; West Bay City; Ypsilanti.

MINNESOTA: Duluth; Minneapolis, Central, East Side, North Side, South Side; Redwing; St. Paul, Central, Cleveland, Humboldt; Winona.

MISSOURI: Columbia; Kansas City Central; Kansas City Manual Training; Trenton; St. Louis McKinley; St. Louis Central.

OHIO: Akron; Astabula; Bellefontaine; Cincinnati:-Hughes, Walnut Hills, Woodward; Cleveland Central, East, Lincoln, South, West; Columbus East, North, South; Coshocton; Delaware; East Cleveland; East Liverpool; Elyria; Fostoria; Glenville; Greenville; Lakewood; Lancaster; Mansfield; Marion; Middletown; Mount Vernon; Newark; Piqua; Portsmouth; Salem; Sandusky; Toledo; Troy; Van Wert; Warren; Wooster; Xenia; Youngstown; Zanesville.

WISCONSIN: Appleton; Ashland; Baraboo; Wayland Academy at Beaver Dam; Beloit; Berlin; Chippewa Falls; Eau Claire; Fond du Lac; Grand Rapids; Janesville; La Crosse; Madison; Marinette; Marshfield; Menomonie; Milwaukee, East Division, West Division, South Division, Milwaukee-Downer Seminary; New Richmond; Oshkosh; Portage; Racine; Ripon; Sheboygan; Sparta; Stevens Point; Superior, Blaine, Dewey; Waukesha; Wausau; Whitewater.

Your Board of Inspectors desires to make the following recommendation:

That North and South Dakota be admitted to this Association, and that the High School at Yankton, South Dakota, be placed on the accredited list.

Respectfully submitted,

A. S. WHITNEY,
Chairman.

The minutes of the meeting of the Commission on Accredited Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools were then read, as follows:

The Commission met at 2 P. M., Thursday, March 30, 1905, at the Auditorium Hotel in Chicago, with Professor H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago, in the chair. The members present were Professor Joseph V. Denney, and Inspector W. W. Boyd, of the Ohio State University; Secretary G. M. Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal E. L. Harris, of the Cleveland Central High School; Principal W. W. Coy, of the Cincinnati Hughes High School; Professor F. W. Hicks, of the University of Cincinnati; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal F. L. Bliss, of the Detroit University School; Inspector H. A. Hollister, of the University of Illinois; Professor W. R. Bridgman, of Lake Forest College; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Chicago Englewood High School; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute; Professor J. A. James, of Northwestern University; County Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Inspector A. W. Tressler and Professor F. G. Hubbard, of the University of Wisconsin; Professor H. D. Densmore, of Beloit College; Inspector George B. Aiton, of Minnesota; Inspector J. F. Brown and President G. E. MacLean, of the State University of Iowa; President H. S. Seerley, of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls; Inspector J. D. Elliff, of the University of Missouri; President John R. Kirk, of the State Normal School, Kirksville; Professor M. S. Snow, of Washington University.

Chairman Whitney, of the Board of Inspectors, submitted a report of the work of the Board, which, after discussion was accepted and adopted by the Commission.

A motion that the rule of the Board which recognizes thirty pupils per teacher as a maximum be changed from thirty to thirty-six was referred to the Board of Inspectors.

As the committees on defining units in Zoology, Shopwork, Drawing, Physical Culture, and Commercial Subjects were not prepared to report, they were given further time.

The report of the committee which was appointed "to take into consideration the advisability of extending the work of the Commission so as to include accredited colleges and determine what should be the requirements of the bachelor's degree" was not presented to the Commission because of the absence of the chairman of the committee, President Thwing. It was therefore agreed that this report should be made directly to the Association, as was done this morning.

That the definitions of units may be properly revised from year to year, it was voted that there should be standing committees on definitions of units. That these committees may be properly constituted the Board of Inspectors was asked to submit to the Commission the names of those representatives of the colleges and schools of the Association who are best qualified for the work.

It was voted that schools outside of the states represented by the Association may be added to the

accredited list when approved by the Board of Inspectors.

At the request of President Bliss the Chairman of the Commission appointed the following committee to advise with the President as to appointment of members of the Commission: Messrs Carman, MacLean, Denney, Armstrong, and Seerley.

The Commission adjourned to meet immediately after the adjournment of the Association.

The second meeting of the Commission was held Saturday, April 1, at 11:30 A. M. Professor Judson presided, and the following members were present: Denney, Boyd, Jones, and Harris, of Ohio; Bliss, of Michigan; Judson, James, Bridgman, and Carman, of Illinois; Tressler, of Wisconsin; MacLean, Brown, and Seerley, of Iowa; Kirk, Hill, Snow, and Elliff, of Missouri, and Hodgman, of Nebraska.

Professor Judson was chosen Chairman of the Commission, and Director Carman, Secretary.

The Report on Zoology, prepared by Professor Reighard, was referred to the standing committee on the definition of the unit in Zoology.

The Commission adjourned to meet the day preceding the next meeting of the Association.

G. N. CARMAN,
Secretary of the Commission.

The report on Zoology follows:

REPORT ON ZOOLOGY.

PROFESSOR JACOB E. REIGHARD, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

In the opinion of your committee a high school course in Zoology should have for its objects: (1)

To acquaint the student with the common animals of his own neighborhood, with the various environments of these animals, with the structural adaptations which the animals show to their environment and with their habits and economic importance; (2) To afford training in critical methods of making and recording observations both by drawing and by writing, both in the laboratory and in the field; (3) To teach enough of the interpretation of the observed facts that the student may understand the current methods of interpretation from the morphological, physiological, and ecological standpoints. In other words with the study of the structures there should go an interpretation of their use (physiology, ecology) and of their past history (evolution). An elementary training in both experimental and comparative methods should be sought, and the peculiar value of such training as a means of intellectual development should not be overlooked. Ability on the part of the student to observe and think independently is especially desired.

For a course extending through the year with four periods per week, it is recommended that the laboratory and field work consist of the study of at least ten type forms to be selected from the following lists:

1. An insect.
2. The crayfish.
3. An earthworm, leech, or fresh water oligochaete.
4. An amoeba or other protozoan.
5. Hydra or a hydroid.
6. A mussel or snail.

7. A fish.
8. A frog, or turtle.
9. A bird.
10. A mammal.

The animal to be taken as the type under each head may be selected by the teacher and will vary with the locality. It will usually be most convenient to begin with insects in the fall and to take up birds before the spring migration and mammals later in the spring. The order in which the other forms are taken up may vary according to convenience. In the above list the crayfish and the earthworm have been placed after the insect in order to bring like forms together. Those who find difficulty in beginning with a form as small as the grasshopper may prefer to spend the first two weeks on the crayfish, but any considerable delay in taking up insects in the fall should be avoided. The other forms are arranged in the usually accepted logical order which is preferred by most teachers. If, for practical reasons, it is deemed best to depart from this order, it will, in the opinion of your committee, be found that the idea of evolution may be taught with quite as much force from material within the individual groups as by an adherence to the so-called logical order of the groups themselves.

If time permits the teacher may profitably add to the list of types an echinoderm and a sponge, to each of which one or two classes and laboratory periods may be devoted. The student's conception of the animal kingdom is thus greatly broadened.

A suitable laboratory and field equipment is assumed. Its precise character will vary with cir-

cumstances. In general the better the equipment the better the work that may be done. While it is true that a course in zoology may be given without the use of the compound microscope, in the opinion of your committee a much better course may be given by its moderate use.

As far as possible the work on each type should be begun by collecting by the students, chiefly of the type form but incidentally of as many as possible of other forms belonging to the same group. Some of the animals collected should be kept living and the subsequent study should, where practicable, be made on living material. The work on each type should include:

1. *Structure.* The structural work should consist chiefly of external morphology and the structures should be considered as adaptations. It is not intended to eliminate individual dissection, but it is thought that the amount of individual dissection may be much lessened and that internal structures may be studied in part by means of anatomical preparations made by the teacher and by means of models and charts. In connection with each system of organs the special physiology of the system should be taught and should be illustrated by experiments. Physiology should not be taught merely as an inference from structure. The physiological instruction may be profitably concentrated on two types, one invertebrate and one vertebrate, preferably the insect and the frog. By this plan physiological work on other types may be minimized.

2. *Behavior and Habits*: These should be considered in connection with the study of its structure

and where practicable the behavior should be studied first and the structures necessary to the behavior considered afterward. It is believed that more interest will be aroused by finding out first what the animal does and then studying the structures which it uses; but it will often be found necessary to reverse this order.

3. *Study of Related Forms*: It is not meant that the course should be limited to the study of the type forms, but rather that, in each group the type form should be the basis upon which to build an acquaintance with the commoner related forms in the local fauna. The scientific names and the classification of these forms need not be taught but rather sight recognition of many forms and their common names with a reference of each to the group represented by the laboratory type. Although it is not intended that taxonomy should be taught, nevertheless individual students who show an aptitude for it should be provided with literature and should receive every encouragement from the teacher to carry on voluntary work in collecting and classifying animals.

4. *Ecology*: Animal ecology includes not only a study of the habits of animals referred to but also a study of the relations of animals to their environment. This branch of zoology which must be in part carried on in the field attempts to determine how animals maintain themselves in their environment and why animals in a given environment give place to others when the physical and other characteristics of the environment are altered. Your committee fears that but few teachers are prepared to include this subject in their teaching, but it desires to call attention

to the importance of the subject as a constituent part of a high school course in zoology and to urge upon the teachers the need of preparing themselves to do work of this sort. The amount of such work that it is thought may be done in elementary classes is indicated in the specific illustration which follows.

The plan recommended by the committee for laboratory and field work may be best made clear by a specific illustration. Thus the work on insects may be begun with the grasshopper with a collecting trip in which each individual student is required to bring into the laboratory as many kinds of grasshoppers as he can obtain and together with these a certain number of insects belonging to other groups. Each student should then preserve most of the insects in his collection and after sorting them put them aside for future use. In this connection instruction may be given in methods of pinning and preserving insects and encouragement may be given the pupil to make his own collection. Many of the grasshoppers collected should be kept alive and their study now be undertaken. In this study function and structure should, as far as possible be considered in connection with one another. Thus the student may observe the ways of walking, hopping, and flying, and in connection with these may study on preserved material the structure of the legs and wings. At the same time he may be instructed in the class room and by the aid of models, preparations and diagrams concerning muscles and the movements produced by them. Similarly he may study the use of the mouth parts in feeding and may then observe the structure of the mouth parts in greater detail. From this he

may proceed to a study of the structure of the digestive organs either from his own dissections or from preparations and charts. The teacher may then give elementary instruction concerning the process of digestion. Again observations may be made on the breathing movements to be followed by an anatomical study of the spiracles and tracheae and an exposition of the nature of respiration. Thus in all cases, so far as practicable close correlation should be made between the work on the function and that on the structure of the various parts of the body.

The work in which the student can actually see the working of the part observed will of course have to be followed by a study of the parts whose function is not so obvious, but the same principle of correlating structure and function may be followed throughout. It is advisable that the work in which the teacher supplies most of the physiological instruction should follow that in which the pupil is able to make his own observations.

The class should next make a comparative study of the different grasshoppers collected so as to be able to distinguish the different species in a second field excursion. When a good conception has been gained of the general structure of the body and of the chief functions of its parts and when a sight recognition of the local species of grasshoppers is assured, attention may be directed to the life of grasshoppers in the field and to the adaptations shown by the various species to their conditions of existence (ecology). To give an illustration of the nature of the ecological work that may be undertaken advantageously in the high school, we may cite the follow-

ing observations which may easily be made upon the grasshoppers which occur in nearly every neighborhood. The kind of situation should be noted in which each species occurs. The students should observe the relation between these habitats and the species found in them, the instinct of the roadside grasshopper to alight in barren spots of ground and of various species of green coloration to alight on grass stems and to keep on the side opposite the observer; the instinct of other species when alighting in the grass to drop down and remain quiet next the ground. These and many other features of behavior which show a marked adaptation to particular kinds of environment can easily be observed and interpreted. If the teacher directs the attention of the students to such phenomena and by carefully planned questions leads them to make and to record observations of their own, work cannot fail to prove of interest and value. Such work if properly planned can be controlled as well as tasks performed in the laboratory.

When the field work on the grasshopper has been completed the class should take up the insects on the first field excursion and should become familiar with the principal groups of insects. At this point attention may be directed to the economic value of certain species. Here again opportunity will be afforded to stimulate individual work and the making of collections.

The same plan of work may be followed in considerable detail with the mollusca. In the case of other groups the field work may need to be considerably modified. Thus birds and mammals may not be collected but both may be studied in the field.

Protozoa and hydra may be collected but are not, of course, suitable for field study. In the case of each type the plan outlined should be followed in so far as the nature of the material permits. It is believed that in the laboratory the plan is feasible in nearly every case.

Both laboratory and field work are best carried on by means of written or printed directions prepared by the teacher. Just before each field excursion the teacher should visit the locality selected for the field work in order to be assured that the desired material is available and that the observations outlined are feasible.

The class room instruction should co-ordinate and extend the work done in the laboratory and further interpret it. It is believed that the further work carried on in the class room may be best done by means of topics to be studied in connection with those laboratory types which best illustrate them. Thus in connection with insects, protective coloring and mimicry as well as the general subject of metamorphosis may be enforced and illustrated. In connection with the frog the development should be studied in the laboratory, and general notions of development added to those of metamorphose. In connection with the mollusca, variation and the ideas of species may be enforced. Instinct and intelligence may properly be considered in connection with several of the types. Toward the end of the course, time should be left for a connected presentation of the doctrine of evolution and of natural selection.

Your committee wishes to call attention to the importance of proper field and laboratory notes and

drawings. Notes, both in field and laboratory should be made while the work is in progress, not afterward. They should be criticised by the teacher with reference to their pertinence and completeness and should be permanently preserved. Such notes may be made the basis of more careful reports which should be criticised not only with reference to the arrangement of their contents, but also to the character of their conclusions and their English. It is suggested that teachers of English will often be found willing to cooperate in the correction of such reports. Drawing is of no less importance than note taking. Drawings should be made chiefly in the laboratory and always from the specimen. It should be the object of the teacher to see that the drawings are accurate and that their details have meaning. Meaningless or ambiguous lines or mass of shade have no more place in a scientific drawing than meaningless words in a sentence.

Your committee wishes further to call attention to the importance of local school museums. These should contain primarily representatives of the local fauna attractively displayed. Students may be referred to specimens in such a museum as they are referred to books and may use the museum as they would a library. The Michigan Academy of Sciences maintains a bureau, the purpose of which is to secure for teachers and others the identification of specimens collected by them and their exchange for other specimens. Information concerning the bureau may be had from the Secretary of the Academy, Professor Charles E. Marshall, Agricultural College, Mich.

Your committee makes the following further recommendations:

1. That the course be put in the second high school year, rather than in the first and that it be preceded by a course in physiography. Such an arrangement should greatly help the teaching of field ecology.

2. Each week's work should consist of two class exercises and at least two laboratory exercises. Each laboratory exercise should consist of at least two school periods and these should if possible be the last two periods of the afternoon. By this arrangement it will be possible to use the greater part of the afternoon for field excursion.

3. Where but half a year's work is offered in zoology the teacher should select the groups to be studied. Since the groups do not require equal periods of time, the number to be studied in a half year's course will depend on the selection. It should not be less than five.

4. Where but half a year's work is offered in zoology and where at the same time human physiology is taught the zoology should be followed at once by the physiology or the two subjects should be combined into a single course. It is believed that time will be saved by this arrangement and that interest will be added to both subjects.

PRESIDENT BLISS:

The hour has now arrived for beginning the Conference on Graduate Work in American Universities. This Association has done much to secure unity of action in the north central states, while eastern institutions have done much towards preserving high standards. We are especially favored to-day in hav-

ing with us a representative of one of the oldest and best tried of the eastern universities, who will address us on True and False Standards of Graduate Work. I have great pleasure in introducing Dean Andrew F. West, of Princeton.

DEAN WEST:

I trust it may not be inappropriate before reading what I have to say if I express the sense of strangeness in coming to an educational gathering in Chicago and not seeing President Harper. I desire to express the unstinted admiration I am sure we all feel for his heroism in his sickness.

TRUE AND FALSE STANDARDS OF GRADUATE WORK.

DEAN ANDREW F. WEST, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

We need not stop to prove at the outset of this discussion that the liberal arts and sciences are and must be the central and regulative part of every true university. This body of studies alone, taken in its entirety, presents us with the nearest approach to a system of pure knowledge of universal value, ever improving, self renewing, growing slowly clearer, more complete from age to age. It represents to us, as no other body of studies can, the sum of things best worth knowing by men whose object is to follow truth for its own sake, not as a means for obtaining a living, nor for social and political gain, but for the sake of ordering their lives in accordance with the highest ends. It was not without some glimpse of

this truth that mediaeval letters referred to the universities of Paris and Oxford as "the two eyes of Christendom," nor was it without like insight that some of the oldest university documents began with the phrase "We seek the pearl of knowledge, of great price, in the field of liberal studies." And what was thus true of universities at their birth has been true in every generation down to our own time and is evidenced in many ways,— as, for instance, in the fine declaration of Hofman in his address as Rector of the University of Berlin, wherein he figured the liberal knowledge enshrined in the Philosophical Faculty as "the Palladium of the Ideal." And so it is. Watch the wavering fortunes of university history. No deterioration in the purity and strength of intellectual standards has taken place without affecting injuriously these studies. No great wave of commercial, technical, or other utilitarian influence has swept on unchecked into university life without disaster to university ideals. And no great period of intellectual illumination and advance has come to any university in all the time of recorded history except through the self-sacrificing devotion of men to the cause of knowledge as embodied in or, at least, as closely related to the distinctively liberal arts and sciences. This has been our guiding light always.

"And when it fails, fight as we will, we die;
And while it lasts, we cannot wholly end."

A university may have, and a complete university must have more than this central faculty of arts and sciences. The professional and technical schools which properly round out the circle, so far

from being despised as parts of a university, are the great appliances which connect the ideal centre of knowledge with the practical needs of the world. A law school, a medical school, an engineering school, all derive immense benefit by being placed in proper relation to the central faculty of arts and sciences, and give back many benefits in turn. But no aggregation of professional and technical schools makes a real university, because such an aggregation lacks its vital centre, its faculty of arts and sciences, which alone can maintain the universal standards of knowledge in all their exactness and rigor and thus relate and steady the particular standards of the professional and technical schools.

The liberal arts and sciences fall into two sections. The first or lower section is the undergraduate college course of study, the one thing in our higher education which is best worth preserving, for this alone furnishes the best basis, which is always desired, though not as yet generally taken, for subsequent university study whether of liberal or professional character. So I need not argue in this presence that to preserve and develop the undergraduate college education in its purest form is to do an indispensable service to all forms of graduate study.

Let us turn at once to the graduate work and confine our attention to the other section of the field of liberal studies. Professional and technical studies may in a sense be depended on to take care of themselves. They will always flourish so long as men are seeking to be educated in order to make a profitable living. But graduate work in liberal studies cannot be maintained on this basis, because the end aimed

at is different. For if the pursuit of wealth or station is the end aimed at by a man who thinks he is giving himself to the life of a scholar, he is not aiming at a scholarly end. Consequently in order to maintain its own standards a true graduate school in the liberal arts and sciences must depend on something else to sustain it. The moment it becomes an employment bureau or an agency for finding places, a sordid motive enters, and it is in danger of ceasing to be a school devoted to the cause of truth and knowledge. Unless, therefore, the life of the scholar is to appeal to men not primarily as a means of livelihood, but because they cannot help following the scholar's life, we have no sufficient basis for justifying the maintenance of this all-important school. And if this school perishes or becomes degraded, you may be very sure that sooner or later every valuable function of the university will be injured.

I suppose we can all accept heartily the statement that the chief business of a university is to maintain standards, — to determine, inspect, and certify the intellectual and moral weights and measures. I do not doubt we can go farther and agree in asserting that this maintenance of intellectual and moral standards is acutely needed in our own nation at this time when its material interests are becoming so vast and complex. And this, more than all else, is the peculiar and pressing duty of every graduate school in liberal studies. Here the higher teachers of the nation are being trained. Here the influences which make for truth and reason are or, at least, ought to be most pure and uncontaminated. The service to be rendered is priceless, the need is urgent,

and the fact that our graduate schools in liberal studies properly planned and guided are specially fitted to render this service is the fact which justifies their existence.

It therefore becomes a matter of the first moment for us that the standards of graduate work should be maintained in as much purity as our means and intelligence permit. We know they will not be perfect at the best, but we also know that if we maintain them at a lower level than we ought, even according to our own imperfect conception of duty, there is nothing to keep even our existing standards from deteriorating. The duty of self-criticism is therefore ever with us, not only if we are to improve, but if we are to keep what we have. I therefore ask you to look for a little while at three aspects of this question of true and false standards in graduate work, — namely, our standards of knowledge, our standards of expression, and our standards of judgment.

1. The standards of knowledge in graduate work are especially threatened just now by the antagonism of an unenlightened specialization. This is not only the curse of the specialization which does not rest on a sound general education, but in a degree of all specialization which does not limit the subdivision of studies by some consideration of the intrinsic value of the thing studied. What knowledge is of most worth? is the fundamental question which tests every graduate study and every graduate student, as it does everyone who professes to be a thinker in any field of knowledge at any stage of his life. It has now become a very fair question whether the

subdivision of topics has not gone so far that not only the perception of relative values is clouded, but even the community of intellectual interests among our higher students is being destroyed. Certainly some of our scholars seem to be subjects of some petty principality rather than freemen in the commonwealth of knowledge.

It is a matter of common remark that many of our rising students in science are only too ignorant of literature, many philosophers ignorant of science, and many literary men ignorant of both. But this is not the full extent of the trouble. Many men, whether in science or philosophy or literature or history, are unacquainted with and utterly uninterested in either science or philosophy or literature or history as a whole. We may subdivide still more and find that one philosopher is a logician only, one scientific man a biologist only, and some other scholar a classical philologist only. Would that we could stop here, but we must go on until we discover that there are many who are familiar only with some subdivision of a division of their logic or biology or philology. They may be known by two characteristics: the first is their intensive knowledge of a small portion of some subject, which is all very well, and the second is their extensive ignorance of everything outside that small portion of their subject, which is not well at all. How vividly it brings out the point of Montaigue's satirical story. As he rode across the plain one morning he encountered a company of gentlemen and said to them "Good morning, Messieurs," and the leader of the company sharply replied "We and not Messieurs; my friend here is a grammarian

and I am a logician." Were these worthy scholars living to-day perhaps they would not be able to profess even so much. The one would likely be a student of some little part of syntax and the other the exploiter of a mechanical device for grinding out some special results of the use of the syllogism. This may be well enough, provided the specialist is not making it the end of his intellectual life, provided he constantly realizes that the only valuable specialization lies in studying the general in the particular, and that the relating of an accurately determined particular to the general is the only thing which gives the results of specialized study their place and shows their size in the general body of valuable knowledge. We are not objecting to specialization — far from it — but solely to the study of the unimportant. And this may take many forms. It may take the form of investigating something which when ascertained is found to be a trifle. Or it may take the form of solemnly proving the obvious by an elaborate array of statistics, as when we are shown conclusively by tables of percentages, which have been tested and re-tested, that a given number of children born and bred in the city, compared with the same number born and bred in the country, show less knowledge of the different kinds of plants, grains, birds and beasts than do their rural compeers. Of the same nature is the proof I read recently, showing minutely and beyond the shadow of a doubt that in the domain of "child psychology" there was a marked distinction between the preferences of young boys and girls for animal pets, more girls than boys preferring birds, and that unkindness or cruelty to an animal was

from thirty to fifty per cent more shocking to a girl than to a boy. Does one need to pursue higher university studies in order to know this?

A force which is always operating to increase the perplexities of the situation is the mania for publication. It is assumed that production of original results, published so all may have a chance to read and test them, is a necessary mark of the higher scholarship. Pressure is therefore constantly felt by the aspiring young candidate to justify himself in the eyes of other scholars in this way. Our embryo Doctors of Philosophy must write and print a dissertation. This again is very well, if the man who is writing the dissertation has a sensible mind and is writing about something that needs to be made known. But what has come to pass? Another deluge! The number of reviews, scattered articles and contributions of every sort in any one great subject such as biology, or history, or chemistry, or classics, is so great that it is doubtful whether any human being can read in ten years the output in any one of these subjects for one year. The vast mass of publications is piling up unsifted, unorganized. and therefore unavailable to a large extent for future use. It reminds us a little of what Carlyle said about the voluminous archives of the French Revolution: "The French Revolution consists of some tons of manuscript slowly rotting in the European libraries."

The menace to our standards of knowledge offered by intemperate specialization is thus increased by a false notion as to what scholarly productivety is. It consists not only in the advancement of knowledge, but in the diffusion of knowledge, and above all,

it consists primarily in the advancement and diffusion of the more valuable knowledge. And, in passing, let us ask, how anyone can fail to see that the question whether a certain body of knowledge is new or old has in itself nothing to do with the question of relative values. Furthermore, in the forming of a great scholar by the close personal touch of his master, there is a far nobler form of productivity than the writing of even an important dissertation. As a rule, the best "collected works" a scholar can leave is a group of great students. In the light of such considerations, it is not clear that the integrity of our standards of knowledge is being menaced? The pure white light is being broken into the many beams that compose it, and many there are who see not even so much as one whole color, but only some one hue of that color in the great sprectrum. The clear organization and evaluation of the knowledge we now have seems at the present time of more importance than all the stray advances hither and thither.

Our standards of knowledge therefore need to be centered in the general body of ascertained truth. We must take our position, in the words of Francis Bacon, that "philosophy and universality are not idle studies," and we must carry this so far as to believe that only in the light of the universal shall we understand the worth and bearing of the particular. And as the only available practical help towards securing this attitude of mind in our graduate students we must insist on a clear and pure preliminary training in liberal college studies, followed by such a training in their graduate work as constantly keeps them in touch with the community of intellectual in-

terests outside their special field of study. And to secure this in turn we should aim to secure as graduate students only men of strong all-around ability, open vision, and wide sympathies. In short we must, first of all, secure the right kind of man as a graduate student. Having done this, we may rest assured that all the other desirable results may be made to follow.

2. When the harmonious standards of general knowledge are lost sight of, particular standards suited to one or another specialty are apt to take their place. Partly as a result of this there comes a corresponding change in the standards of expression. When the broad view is lost, simplicity and universality of statement, and a consequent attractiveness and beauty of presentation, are apt to suffer. It is not enough that a book or dissertation in the field of scholarship be accurate and painstaking, if it is to survive in the recollection of men. As we review in thought the books and papers which have made a mark on the intellectual life of any period, it is easy to see that many able contributions to knowledge have passed into oblivion because they were not engaging and readable; whereas one of the distinctive marks of the finest class of such compositions is their convincing charm of style. These are the classics of science and philosophy, as well as of literature. A scientific writer who has the artist's sense has thus an advantage over his equally able rival, and sometimes over his abler rival who lacks this sense. Now one of the most evident faults of the mass of specialized publications which now occupy the main place in our literature of scholarship is a sort of solemn pedantry. This springs from the entire subordination

of the writer, his restricted theme, and to the particular technique of language which belongs to his specialty. He does not dominate his subject, but is mastered by it. He therefore writes too much in a dialect and not in a literary way. He becomes dry and lifeless. Of course every subject and every subdivision of a subject has its own furniture of ideas and must make use of the technical words which alone set forth these ideas accurately. But this has been fearfully overdone. If it sufficed a Newton to define the elusive atom, whether rightly or wrongly is of no importance here, as "the least part of matter," ought we not to take courage from his example and insist that technical terms, except when necessary, and highly formal language, and in fact all forms of swollen diction, be excluded from the scholar's writing? The difficulty of the ideas is sufficient without enveloping them in a fog of words. Let us somehow manage to keep the common store of pure English as the one treasury to which we resort for everything common English words can express. In this way alone shall we be able to preserve a general reading interest which will steadily connect the publications in one department of knowledge with the publications in another. Descartes has said that clearness is a test of truth. Without going so far as to reverse this and to assert that obscurity of statement is evidence of error, we may at least use the maxim as a warning to all men who are prone to write in a formidable technical dialect.

One other thing may be said in this connection: Pretentiousness of any sort is unscholarly, whether it be in the form of conceit as to the value of one's

own thoughts or in the form of grave pedantry in proclaiming them to others. And, lastly, on this point it may be asserted that the man who is a slave to a technical terminology is in constant danger of getting away from the concrete truth of what he is studying into a region of artificial construction where he is so much occupied with the scaffolding and outer appliances that he mistakes work on these for work on the real building.

3. Back of all standards of knowledge and expression in the scholar's life lie his standards of judgment. On these more than on anything else depend the genuineness and permanence of what he does. We may leave geniuses aside in this discussion, because there is no use or need of legislation for them, and after all they are very few in number, supreme as their distinction is. And yet, even in the case of geniuses, we shall find more instances of sound common sense than might be expected. But what of the mass of scholars? What is to be the ultimate guarantee of mankind generally that their work is intrinsically valuable, whether it be brilliant or plain, extensive or limited, commanding or humble? What but one thing? the possession of sound judgment. Faraday somewhere writes that the education of the judgment is the chief benefit of a scientific training, and Huxley has told us that scientific ability in its last analysis is nothing less and nothing else than "trained common sense." How this throws us back on the personality of the man whom we are to encourage to be a graduate student. It thus becomes primarily the question not of what he can know, how he can express it, or how much he can do, but what

kind of a man he is. The reasonings and conclusions of a vain man will be tinged with vanity. The judgments of a man "deep versed in books, but shallow in himself" will not permanently appeal to the respect of his fellow man. The capricious or adventurous or self-advertising scholar is, so far forth, not a true scholar. The fate of our higher studies, in their effect on the men we influence, depends first of all on what kind of men we are. The kind of scholar any man is to become, so far as the abiding value of his influence goes, is determined in the last resort not so much by what he knows or says as by what he believes and loves. He must have the lover's instinct, almost the art of divination. Like the miner, he must have the eye that knows the ores of gold from fool's gold. The student who naturally longs to know the things of most worth, and searches for them in all simplicity and sincerity, and purposes to turn all to the best account by making his acquirements accessible and serviceable to his fellowmen, is the only kind of man who ought to be encouraged to enter our graduate schools. And this kind of man is most naturally bred in the comradeship of our college life and in the atmosphere of liberal studies. What a mistake to fail in any way to make our graduate schools supremely attractive to just this sort of man. Given the personal qualities indicated and a suitable college training, and on top of this a life in graduate studies environed by the friendships that arise from the constant interchange of ideas between men studying in different departments of knowledge, how can the young scholar, so circumstanced, fail to develop that "trained common sense," that well-poised judg-

ment which must enlighten all his thinking and all his doing if he is to be the scholar we are describing.

It has often been debated whether the theoretical or practical mind is the higher type. If the terms are used in their proper sense, it seems to me there can be only one answer: The practical mind is the better, because sound judgment, which is essential to all sane scholarship, is an eminently practical thing. It is this that transforms knowledge into wisdom. The brilliant theoretical scholar, without this balance, is structurally weak. But let us not misunderstand what this practical mind is. It is not cut off from theory. In fact the highest practical scholars are those most deeply grounded in theoretical knowledge, but they differ from the merely theoretical scholar in being able to use that knowledge steadily in applying it to the best advantage, and consequently the man who is a practical scholar in this sense is the only one who unites the best traits of the theoretical and practical mind. So when we see men of flighty judgment, erratic purposes, and unsteady effort, let us keep them out of our graduate schools as surely as we keep out the drone or ought to keep out the dullard.

At this time, more than ever before, business and professional life, with their attractive careers and dazzling rewards, are taking most of the able men of the country. The attractions of the scholar's life are not relatively as great as they were a generation ago, nor is the honor paid to the scholar so great in our land as in the older civilizations of Great Britain, France, and Germany. And yet on the little band of scholars in the liberal arts and sciences depends,

more than ever before, the tone of our nation in things intellectual and moral. We have already too many second-rate and third-rate and fourth-rate men among our scholars. We shall never be short of these. But on our graduate schools in the liberal studies rests the supreme privilege and duty of standing more resolutely than ever for the best standards of knowledge, expression, and judgment, so that the small company of picked men who are best fitted by reason of their high manhood to become our best scholars will naturally resort to our graduate schools and lift them, and with them, the higher American scholarship, to a level never attained before. And may we live to see that day !

A discussion followed on "Aspects of Graduate Work," by President Geo. E. MacLean, The State University of Iowa; President Edmund J. James, University of Illinois; Dean Edwin A. Birge, University of Wisconsin, and Dean Albion W. Small, University of Chicago.

SOME ASPECTS OF GRADUATE WORK IN STATE UNIVERSITIES.

PRESIDENT MACLEAN, The State University of Iowa:

In listening to Dean West, imagine my suspense and interest. Unlike the character in the famous story of "The Lady or the Tiger," I have been standing in the arena sure that when the door opened, as the Dean came from Princeton, it would be "The Gentleman and the Tiger." Admiring the inimitable

style of Dean West, and the clearness with which he has presented his position, I must however, confess I am glad I am not placed here for a general discussion of his paper; because first, I would feel incompetent, and second, I would have to lament the untimeliness of the presentation of certain doctrines. They fall in with certain popular sentiments fostered in this period of commercialism in the West, that only a few should go on to the highest education. Unwittingly therefore, the Dean's paper is bringing "coals to Newcastle."

A group of us who have given years to preparation in order that we might learn how patiently to investigate and to teach lessons of research, are likely to be discouraged. We have hoped that we had a mission to direct the fruits of prosperity to endow opportunities to secure exact training and American leadership in thought. America has brought forth too few scholars. The age of scholarship has yet to come to us. We have hoped that the time was at hand when the gifted and patient boy born upon the prairies, might be encouraged to enter upon the highest educational advantages without being forced to go to European countries or even the Atlantic seaboard. We recognize that the university movement as distinguished from the collegiate, dates in some sense only from 1876, the time of the foundation of Johns Hopkins, or the efforts from 1869 of President Eliot at Harvard, supplemented later by those of President Dwight of Yale, and of our heroic Harper in the West.

While we may with some justice smile at the mediocre, cock-sure doctor of philosophy of a decade

or two ago from the German university, we have come to need the unpretentious, as over against the brilliant scholar in our great hive of American industry. We need them in larger numbers that others may build upon their painstaking work. We rejoice that there is a prospect that we may have them when we consider especially the subject assigned to me, of "Some Aspects of Graduate Work in State Universities."

It is encouraging for the true scholar that the state universities, peculiarly people's institutions planted in the different part of the country, have begun to evolve, as over against collegiate or merely professional, graduate work that will meet the test of the true and false standards set out by Dean West. Something of this will appear in the facts contained in a paper presented by Dean Hellems of the University of Colorado on behalf of President Baker at the recent meeting of the National Association of State Universities in Des Moines. The paper rests upon 177 replies to a questionnaire.

"The last topic, graduate work in the university, evoked some suggestive replies. A very few respondents thought that the State University ought not to undertake graduate work, assigning such reasons as these:

1. Too costly.
2. Would discourage private benefactions.
3. Would needlessly duplicate work already done.
4. Would lead to neglect of undergraduate work.
5. Would offer too much political temptation, etc.

But on the whole, the replies were preponderantly in favor of the development of graduate work in the state universities as rapidly as possible, not only for its own sake, but for its influence on the undergraduate teaching. One experienced president pointed out that the departments which manage to keep going the most graduate work do also the best undergraduate work. Of no small interest was the fact that not a few of the smaller institutions felt that the state universities should aim at making the graduate work their primary consideration. President Eliot suggests, "This seems to me a question of *most acceptable* expenditure,— a gradute school is for a few at a heavy cost." President Plantz of Lawrence goes to the center of the question with his doubts whether the state has a right to tax the people in order to educate men in specialties. "It would seem," he says, "that men who have been given a college course could pay their own bills for advanced work." In other words, ought the people bear the expense of research instead of leaving it to generous philanthropists? To these questions the man who knows the American people must believe that time is bringing only one answer. As a teacher I may be allowed to say that to most of us the graduate work we can manage to do is a sort of intellectual and educational hill-climbing from which we return with broader mental horizons, feeling more fit and vigorous for our other teaching.

The state universities should develop graduate work as rapidly as their resources will permit. The people will submit to taxation for research, partic-

ularly if it is treated as part of a helpful state institution."

In these north central states, out of 13 state universities, 11 are doing graduate work, and many of them have geen growing in it for at least two decades. Of these 11, it may be stated without any invidious discrimination, that not less than six are doing general graduate work. Three or four of these universities have organized separate genuine colleges with their deans and faculties. It would perhaps be entirely proper to mention that universities like Michigan and Wisconsin have taken a foremost place, and modesty shall not forbid me saying that in Missouri, Nebraska and Iowa, there are graduate colleges with an attendance in at least two of these institutions, of nearly 200 graduate students in residence. Thus the state universities in the mid-west have responded to the demands of our American civilization, and this work has been well inaugurated.

I have in my hands a paper by President Thompson of Ohio State University on the subject, in which he states so clearly the principle that constrains state universities to enter this field, and the principle that indicates what must be the future development of this work, that I beg to read a paragraph:

"I suggest the propriety of suggesting to ourselves the fact that there is a common purpose in all of these state universities. They are the people's institutions which must represent more efficiently than any other class of institutions do, the great doctrine of education for the masses. These institutions are founded in the belief that higher education

should be brought to the doors of the multitudes. They have no sympathy with the thought that higher education is the privilege of the few and favored. They believe in education for leadership, and further believe that such leadership is to be culled out of the so-called common people. I believe therefore, that a new emphasis upon this significance of the state universities, if made in concert, would be of great service."

If one infers a tendency from the principles mentioned to lower the standards of a graduate college, it is well that we continue our quotation from President Thompson, illustrating how standards are maintained:

"The institution which I have the honor to serve is able to recognize perhaps eight colleges within the state, whose graduates may be registered as graduate students—candidates for the second degree. This applies to the B. A. degree, but not to the B. S. degree. We find it necessary to check up the science degree in all colleges, and in two thirds of the colleges of the state it is necessary to check up the undergraduate work for the B. A. degree. As a result, it becomes necessary to assign a considerable amount of undergraduate work which must be completed in addition to the assigned graduate work before the second degree is granted. This lengthens the time if we enforce the same standards upon graduates of other colleges as are required for our own graduates, or so crowds the candidate as to make his graduate work less satisfactory. It must be recognized that successful graduate work demands a reading knowledge of modern languages in addition to a consider-

able proficiency in the subjects assigned to the graduate school. It will not be claimed that very many normal schools have students to enter upon such work."

We are afforded an illustration of the way in which state universities which by supposition are exposed to the greatest dangers by pressure not to maintain standards, nevertheless do so. It may be broadly stated that the best state universities in the mid-west have higher requirements than the Atlantic seaboard universities for the taking of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. It is an open secret to those of us in the west. In fact, to have our scholarship recognized, as a matter of self protection and to secure recognition of the universities of Europe, we have to enforce our standards more scrupulously than they are willing to do at some institutions on the Atlantic seaboard. For example: we must have not less than three years of residence for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Another vital point in the history of graduate work in state universities is the impetus given by the United States throughout the country, when as a result of the Morrill act, the Hatch act passed the congress, establishing in each state and territory an agricultural experiment station with an income of $15,000 a year from the United States. This money could not be used for instruction or buildings, but chiefly for experiment and research. Graduate work was made attractive and practical even in the eyes of a most practical people, for it was applied in our greatest industry, agriculture.

Borne upon the bosom of the United States this graduate work in state universities and colleges has come to a second stage of growth. The United States Department of Agriculture, when Mr. Morton was secretary and our good President Dabney was assistant secretary, prepared for the gathering of a group of research men at Washington in that department. This has really been done by Mr. Secretary Wilson, so that we have practically university fellowships and the germ of a real University of the United States springing out of the Department of Agriculture.

The future therefore, of graduate work in each of these state universities, crowned by the work at Washington, seems assured. The states have been tempted to follow the example of the United States in liberality in fostering what in the end will not simply yield practical fruits, but the spirit of research. The mercenary spirit of our day may be stayed, if not put to shame. The scholar will take his place beside the man of affairs. These graduate colleges, now relatively small, will give an uplift to our democracy. Some of the men in the small and detached colleges are anxious as to their future. Many of us in the universities sympathize with them. Is it not possible that the ancient ideals of the colleges will ultimately be saved as they are reinforced from university fountain heads located in each great state? The graduate colleges must help to save the old college and its spirit.

The discussion was continued by President Edmund J. James, University of Illinois. [Owing to a mistake on the stenographer's part no satisfactory

report of President James's remarks was made, and rather than present an unsatisfactory report it is deemed best to omit any attempt at an abstract.—Secretary.]

DEAN E. A. BIRGE, University of Wisconsin:

The Secretary of this Association invited me to speak on graduate study in state universities. I am sure that I should not have had the courage to accept his invitation had I known that I was to be preceded in the discussion by two presidents of state universities who are so fully in sympathy with graduate study and so well able to express their ideals and whose institutions are so distinguished for success in that department of education. As it is, there is little left for me to do beyond expressing my concurrence with what they have so well said, and to add a few more or less rambling remarks by way of supplement.

I have perhaps one advantage over either of my predecessors in that my entire active life as teacher has been spent in a state university whose development I have watched for nearly thirty years, a period which covers the entire history of graduate study in state universities. As a result of this experience, there has come to me—and I think to all of those who have been thus associated with the work of state universities—the firm belief that graduate study and research belong to these institutions. Indeed, we feel that these higher departments of education are peculiarly the province of the state university. We believe that it is preeminently the duty of the state, as represented in its educational institutions, to carry on this higher work, whose main value lies in the estab-

lishment of present conditions for successful thought and life in the future rather than the conditions of more immediate, and, therefore, temporary success. The commonwealth which looks forward to the life measured, not by years, but by centuries, whose continuous prosperity depends in so large degree on an intellectual life, vigorous and widely diffused, must provide in its school system for research and graduate study, not as an educational luxury, but as a necessary means for its own permanent growth and happiness.

We are convinced also that the state universities have felt their duty to the state in this respect and that they are endeavoring to perform it. They have doubtless made mistakes in their efforts to accomplish this new and great task. Their graduate work is still open to many criticisms and will long remain in this condition. But they have seriously undertaken the work of developing graduate departments for the service of the commonwealth. They are trying by research and by training men for research to advance the material prosperity of the state, to better the conditions of social life, and, as their highest and most important duty, they are attempting through research to furnish for the intellectual life of the community new and larger tasks and higher ideals of service and duty.

The state universities, like all other institutions in this country, trace the beginning of serious graduate study to the influence of Johns Hopkins University. In several of the state universities, as in others of the larger colleges of the country, graduate study has a longer history, but the vigorous life of this de-

partment in any institution hardly goes back to an earlier period. In each of those universities—state or privately endowed—graduate study has had its own development. But in the state universities as a body there are certain common conditions which have given a like character to this development and which have made the standards of graduate study in those institutions somewhat different in emphasis, though not in essence, from those set forth in Dean West's brilliant paper. Of some of these common conditions and their results I will briefly speak.

In the first place, the establishment of the agricultural colleges by the United States government, and the establishment, at a later date, of the agricultural experiment stations, brought to many of the state universities a number of investigators. Not infrequently it happened that the first members of the faculty whose work was directed primarily to investigation were those appointed on one or the other of these foundations. The example and influence of these men have been among the most potent forces in the faculties tending to the advancement and increase of research and graduate study. As a result. of this experience, the state universities have not felt that distrust of technical study which seems to be present among some of our eastern sisters. We have found that the spirit of scientific research belongs as clearly and strongly to these representatives of technical departments—"bread-and-butter" departments, if you choose so to style them—as to any of the departments of pure science, or of letters. If it were my duty to count on the fingers of one hand those persons whom I have known in whom the spirit of

research and of graduate study was present in its clearest and purest form, I am sure that I should be obliged to name two, if not more, representatives of agriculture and engineering.

Second, the position of the state universities, as representing the state and as members of a state system of education, has entailed upon them peculiar responsibilities and duties in regard to research, as well as in other educational matters. As members of a system, these universities have not been free to detach themselves from the general educational conditions or from the necessities of the states which they serve. The terms of admission to the college course, for instance, must be placed, not as the faculty might desire, but such as can reasonably be attained by the high schools of the state with which the institution stands related. And, on the other side of the college course, the development of graduate study must be in directions and in a proportion which will adapt it to the needs of the community and which will not injure the other duties which the state university must perform. A state university, for example, could by no possibility follow the example of Johns Hopkins or Clark universities, postponing the founding of the undergraduate department, or placing it in the background as subordinate to the graduate school. The undergraduate course must be strongly developed, both as the completion of the high school courses and as the basis of graduate study; and, since the great majority of students who attend our universities are undergraduates, it follows that the larger share of the funds granted to the state universities must be used for undergraduate instruction,

and that graduate instruction is not unlikely to be developed more slowly than in those institutions whose primary purpose is research.

Again, the state university has not completed its full duty when it affords an opportunity for making scholars through graduate study. It is responsible both to scholarship and to the state. It is the task of the university which represents the state to develop the spirit of research in the community and in the state; or, at best, to make the people see the value of research, not merely as aiding the material advancement of the community, but as fostering and developing its intellectual life. The state university has failed in its most important task unless it can make the people see that in research lies much of the future of the state, both material and intellectual, and that in providing training for research the state university is performing a most necessary function for the good of the commonwealth.

Thus graduate study in a state institution differs somewhat in its relations, both to undergraduate work and to the public, from that which it holds in an institution on a private foundation, and if one were to discuss the standards of graduate study from the view of a state institution, he would, I think, express them somewhat differently from the way in which they were stated in the very admirable address with which this discussion was opened. For example, I believe that to be in the highest degree successful, the graduate school of a state university must become a large one. A very small number of graduate students, however choice they may be, cannot touch the life of a state at so many points as to

make the graduate school efficient in the service of the public. The state demands research in many directions and of many kinds, which such a school cannot give. The state university must furnish men to meet these demands and to supply these needs, and I am not sure that I believe that the best results in graduate study would be reached by establishing standards for admission to the graduate school so high that only a few select individuals could meet them. If we who are members of university faculties were omniscient, it might be well for us to build walls and set up gates and ourselves act the part of vigilant doorkeepers as candidates for graduate study present themselves for admission. Yet I question whether this method would secure better results than would be reached by a liberal one. If we could tell by the looks of a graduate, or by any examination paper which we might set, whether, or not, he would in three years develop a capacity for investigation, we should doubtless spare much time, trouble and money by applying such a test, but at present there is perhaps no better way than to set him at work and let the progress of events decide whether he will succeed or fail. In such a method we follow the plan of nature. When the Creator made the world he could find no better way of determining success than that which natural selection affords, and we shall hardly improve greatly on the method of creation. I believe that a trial would show that the larger number of conspicuously successful investigators would be produced by admitting to graduate study all who seem to be worthy of a trial, and allowing success or failure to be determined by the ability of the in-

dividual to avail himself of opportunities freely offered to many. At the best, it will always be true that "many are called but few are chosen," and if we make the first phrase to read, "few are called," I fear that the choice will be few indeed.

I believe also that it is quite possible to place too high our ideas of the kind of work which will be done by the average man trained by graduate study. The advancement of knowledge, like the advancement of life in any of its greater aspects, offers all kinds of tasks. It needs day laborers, as well as great and inspiring leaders. A university which does its duty toward research must train and send out into this field many laborers, skillful in their work and performing it with pleasure, satisfied because, though their capacities are not those of leaders, their daily toil adds itself to the forces which are making for the advancement of learning.

You will note that I have spoken of research rather than of graduate study. The two ideals which underlie higher instruction are those of culture and research. No graduate school can become great if it fails to embody both, yet the position of the state university makes it certain that the ideals of research will be dominant.

If the state universities are to send out many laborers into the field of research, it is impossible that they should not add largely to the amount of printed publications. I am peculiarly in sympathy with the words of the principal speaker regarding the flood of papers which appear in all departments of knowledge and threaten to overwhelm us. My sympathy is all the closer because in no department of

knowledge is this flood greater than in that of Zoology. The *Concilium Bibliographicum* spawns upon us annually almost countless thousands of reference cards in that subject — so many that our departmental fund is impoverished by the necessity of buying card-catalogue cases to contain them. The mass of papers thus produced is well styled appalling; yet whenever any one of us undertakes any piece of research which involves the compilation of what others have done in the same field, does he not find that too little has been written rather than too much? I heard this morning at the meeting of the Association of Naturalists an admirable paper on the geographical distribution of fishes in the river system of South America, in which the author attempted, in part, to read the history of the physical geography of the continent through the information furnished by the distribution of the fishes. It was a paper dealing in generalities and in large views of nature — just the kind of paper which we all delight to hear. Yet at many most important points the conclusions of the speaker were maimed by the absence of knowledge of the facts. The fishes of this or that river had not yet been listed, and consequently it was impossible for him to work out the history of the river or perhaps of the river system. Is not the experience of every one exactly like this? Whenever some large subject is attempted, the flood of literature is found to contain only a very small part of the information which is needed for the task. The obtaining of this information is mainly hack-work, not particularly elevating nor particularly inspiring, yet it must be done by men who are trained in the

methods and in the spirit of research and who are so thoroughly filled with that spirit that they are willing to do hack-work for the advancement of knowledge. The labor of the master in any field of knowledge must depend upon the toil of many journeymen, and the graduate school must furnish not only the masters but the journeymen of research, and journeymen who will do their work thoroughly and well. I cannot, then, regret the flood of publications in the various departments of knowledge. I rather welcome it. I expect, as a matter of course, that the great majority of these publications will be of temporary interest only. They will be forgotten and the names of their authors will be forgotten long before a decade has elapsed; indeed they will hardly be truly known. Yet on the presence of this mass of relatively unimportant papers depends the existence of the masterpiece of science, which will endure for many generations. Without these neglected papers and forgotten writers it can never be produced. The state universities, feeling profoundly the need of enlarged knowledge in every field of life, cannot help adding their part to the great number of papers which have temporary value only. I hope that they will contribute their share of the more enduring results of research.

In still another point I find myself in entire sympathy with the paper of the afternoon, and yet, speaking from the standpoint of the state university, I should express the matter somewhat differently. It is hardly possible to place too much emphasis on the necessity of a graduate school seeking to accomplish important tasks. If graduate study is devoted

to trivialities, it becomes worthless and contemptible. Yet is it not quite as possible that too much stress may be given to the importance of the results to be reached by research before the work is undertaken, as that research may be too lightly entered upon? Research without criticism at every step, both in processes and results, is certainly futile, but not less futile is the criticism which makes the critic afraid to move for fear he may go wrong. The graduate student is exposed to other dangers perhaps quite as great as that of wasting time on trivialities and minutiae of investigation. The field of accomplished knowledge is so great, so pleasant, and so homelike in comparison to the rough and unknown country beyond that the student is always tempted to remain in it. He may become contented in the knowledge of the known; may find his happiness in "the best that has been known and said in the world," and forget the greater world outside of that which has been known and said, which still "lieth in darkness"; some part of which, large or small, he ought to gain for the light.

The temper of research, of discovery, is quite different from the spirit which rests in the appreciation of what has been already done. I was interested recently in reading Dr. Crother's admirable essay—"On the Honorable Points of Ignorance," in which the writer shows how the advance of our knowledge of the world has cramped and limited the free spirit of the explorer and has rendered exploration and discovery, in the old sense, almost impossible. But in the world of knowledge there exist no such limitations to the spirit of discovery. One can still make

journeys into the unknown, sure of finding something, and with good hope of finding something great. Such expeditions are not made at random. The great masters of research have a certain sense of the directions in which discoveries are most likely to be made. It is this sense which makes them great teachers of graduates. Yet if one waits until he is sure of finding a great prize at the other end of his journey into the unknown, it is very possible that he will not enter upon the journey. There must be a willingness to venture time and labor and to risk failure for the sake of discovery, and he who attempts to insure all of his risks before starting out will very likely stay at home. The discoverer in the field of research must keep some of that boyish spirit which is willing to risk and to do a great deal "for fun"; or, if you prefer a more dignified example, he must feel with Darwin that research is "much better sport than writing," or indeed anything else. And for these voyages of discovery there must be men of all grades — those who lead the expeditions; those who serve as guides; and those who merely serve as sailors or as laborers; each according to his own capacity. It is the main duty of the graduate school to inspire in all these grades of men this temper of discovery and to train it so that those who attempt these expeditions into the unknown shall reach results not necessarily of prime importance to the world, but results which will justify themselves according to the capacity of the explorer. The state university, feeling to the full the necessity for research and its value to the state, cannot do other than attempt to imbue its graduate students with

this spirit; sometimes restless, often over-eager; yet which is, after all, the mainspring of discovery and of the advancement of learning.

The question is often asked — "Will the state support research and graduate study?" I do not hesitate for a moment in answering "Yes." Certainly our experience in Wisconsin has given us confidence in this belief. I have often heard the late President Adams say that it was far easier to secure appropriations from the state for research and for advanced work than for almost anything else, and later experience has been exactly similar to his. It is a comparatively easy task to secure money for the strong and well known departments of the university. When any department of a state university is so strong as to advance the reputation of the state, the support of such a department is secure. While the advance of graduate work in state universities cannot be urged forward too rapidly, it is peculiarly true in this direction that the counsel of timidity is the counsel of weakness and that a state which is conscious and proud of its own strength is far more ready to give cordial support to a strong and vigorous forward movement in education than to yield adequate maintenance to a policy of hesitation and reluctance to advance.

I believe, then, that the state universities have a great work to do in graduate research — a work which is peculiarly their own and which, in certain aspects, is different from the work which falls to our sister institutions endowed by private benevolence. The two classes of institutions, however, agree fundamentally in that the success of any graduate depart-

ment depends pre-eminently upon the teacher. The problem in the state university, as elsewhere, is not in the finding of buildings, of apparatus, or of endowments, but in the finding of men who are able to utilize these material conditions of graduate study. Any teacher in a state university, who combines the power of leadership with capacity for guiding his students into fruitful research can build up a strong graduate department. Perhaps his success will depend somewhat more upon himself in a state university than elsewhere. In whatever department he may labor, he may be sure of sympathetic encouragement from his colleagues, yet there is no such tradition in the state university in favor of certain departments or certain lines of study as will aid a comparatively weak man to secure success by means of external conditions. He must stand in his own strength, but if he is able fully and wisely to utilize the resources which the state will place at his command; if he is a clear-headed guide of young men, capable of inspiring in his students devotion to research and of indicating to them the directions in which their labors will be rewarded by success, he will find no difficulty in developing graduate study. And not only so, but he will have the still higher satisfaction of seeing that through his labors he is aiding to spread through a great commonwealth the temper of research, or at least that appreciation of the value of research on whose existence the future prosperity and happiness of the community must in large measure depend.

DEAN ALBION W. SMALL, University of Chicago:

It would certainly be profitable to make Professor West's inspiring paper the text for our discussion. Since we have had no opportunity to consider the contents of the paper, it would hardly be doing justice to it if we should attempt to extemporize argument upon the points which he has raised. I am disposed to take issue with him, not so much on what seems to me to be probably his final thought, but upon certain accidents in the degree of emphasis which he places upon details. For example, I should be glad to discuss the other side of the question of publishing theses. That a vast amount of rubbish is unloaded upon a defenceless world in doctor's theses in notorious. It is not worth while to say anything in mitigation of the fact. At the same time it beggars imagination to think how much worse rubbish might be passed off upon lenient faculties if publication were not required. Not merely the magnates of the beef trust, but members of university faculties have the failings incident to human nature. We all need publicity to keep us decent. The publication of theses is a necessary precaution as a defence against greater evil.

Again, I think there is something to be said even in favor of "swollen diction." When we are threshing out scientific problems it is desirable to avoid so far as possible every temptation in the direction of premature appeal to the general public. It demoralizes scientific processes if they are conducted in a way which appeals to laymen. When I read a monograph by one of my colleagues, and am not sure that I know what he is talking about, I do not feel that

I have a grievance against him, but that he is quite within his own rights in employing terms in a technical way that I do not understand. I want the privilege for myself of using a jargon, when I am dealing with open questions in my own preserve, that will keep amateurs from butting in. On the same principle that doctors still write their prescriptions in Latin, partly to prevent people from dosing themselves with drugs whose uses they do not understand, I think a great deal is to be said for a technical idiom that will keep the multitude from rushing in where they are not prepared to tread.

I feel grateful to Professor West for the standard he has set up for graduate students. I hope the time will come when professors in graduate schools will have none but students of the quality he has described. When that time comes I do not see how it will be any longer possible for the preachers to make those professors believe there would be any gain in going to heaven. Meanwhile, with such an ideal of the desirable quality of graduate students we must adopt a practical, working standard, and approximate it as nearly as possible.

I suspect that I am counted on to take issue with the representatives of State institutions in this discussion. Although I have always worked in private institutions, I am a congenital democrat, and it requires no stretch of my imagination to foresee that public institutions must ultimately bulk larger in democratic education than those privately sustained. All-Of-Us have larger resources than Some-of-Us. On the other hand, for obvious reasons it will for a long time be easier for private institutions to main-

tain certain standards of quality which public institutions cannot enforce. In the matter of graduate work the advantages are by no means all on one side. There are certain qualitative conditions however in which private institutions may have an advantage which state institutions for an indefinite future will fail to offset.

My conception of the contribution which I ought to make to the discussion leads me to follow a somewhat different line of inquiry from that of the previous speakers. I heartily agree with President MacLean that it would be impertinent to assume that the importance of graduate work is sufficient to justify any weakening of collegiate work. We certainly could better do without any new doctors of philosophy for a generation than we could afford to cripple undergraduate instruction. I speak of graduate work not as a rival of other stages in our educational programme, but as one stage which deserves to be valued on its own merits.

I would also preface what I have to say by the necessary qualification that no university in the United States can justly claim to be adequately equipped for graduate work in all departments. Indeed, I should be rather surprised to discover a single department in any university whose professors would admit that their equipment was adequate. Allowing for the demands of every investigator for further equipment, it remains true that no university is furnished with research facilities at all points. Some of them are strong in certain departments and weak in others, and in the strongest

the proper equipment for graduate work is at best an ideal far in advance of realization.

With these qualifications I have tried to codify the opinions of representatives of the twenty-six graduate departments in the University of Chicago as to the essential conditions for respectable graduate work. From the replies which I received to my questions I have reduced the items to the following schedule:

First, the question of proper conditions would be pretty well settled in advance if we could agree upon the definition of the distinction between undergraduate work and graduate work. I will not undertake to justify my own definition, but I will venture to assume that we are substantially agreed on something like this: Considering merely the intellectual factor of the two stages of education, *undergraduate instruction puts the emphasis on imparting accepted knowledge; graduate instruction puts the emphasis on training for investigation.* Of course it is possible to argue, and one of my colleagues does argue very strenuously, that no line can properly be drawn between training for investigation and any other rational form of instruction; that proper instruction from the kindergarten up is training for investigation. There is an element of truth in the contention, but practically there is a period, between the time of juvenile curiosity and the stage of scientific interest, during which the research element in the mental processes of pupils is an inconsiderable quantity, or at least a minor factor. When we shall begin to provide for the needs of the strictly scientific interest, is a ques-

tion by itself. Whether earlier or not, provision for this interest must distinctly mark the graduate stage of instruction.

Second, in accordance with this fundamental position it hardly needs argument that the indispensable condition of good graduate work is what I may call the "graduate atmosphere."

The meaning of the phrase may be brought out best by an illustration or two of what is not the graduate atmosphere. In the first college class that I instructed there were three men older than myself. I was fresh from university study in Germany and verdant with ideals of advanced work. I found slavery to text books the regime. Early in my first course I had occasion to point out an error in one of the reference books in history. After the class, one of these oldest men came to me with an air of mental disturbance, and asked if he was correct in understanding me to take issue with the author of the book. I informed him that he was, and showed him how he could easily prove that the author was wrong. He replied, "this is a new experience for me. I had always supposed that if a man knew enough to write a book, he knew all about it." I gradually realized that I might well consider my work a success if I succeeded in showing the average member of that class that many men write books not because they know enough to do so but because they do not know enough not to. I would not imply that the case is a fair index of the average undergraduate state of mind today. My point simply is that the illustration represents an extreme situation with which the graduate atmosphere is in contrast. An-

other symptom may be used in the same way. In dealing with new graduate students, when they are registering for university courses, one constantly hears the phrase, "I have had" Physiology, or Chemistry, or English, as the case may be. That is, in the mind of those students there are certain divisions of knowledge which they have disposed of once for all, and their outlook contains no provision for unexplored territory beyond the present range of their vision.

A similar symptom was discovered in my office during the past fortnight. An applicant for a graduate fellowship in the Department of English presented a dissertation said to have been accepted already by another institution for the Master's degree. With the application was the request that the dissertation might not be too harshly judged, because the writer "had access to only one critical work in preparing it." There simply is a vacuum, instead of a graduate atmosphere, if it is possible for a student to suppose that proper preparation for research work can go forward under the circumstances indicated in the last instance. On the contrary, the graduate atmosphere is tense with stalwart conviction that the half has not been told in the department of science to which each student is devoted, and that the right sort of work will bring facts and relations to light which will put a greatly different look upon what now passes for knowledge. I hesitate to use phrases which are easily misunderstood and eagerly misrepresented. The graduate atmosphere is not a favorable medium for the nurture of the mentally or morally incompetent. It is dominated by what we

may variously name "the critical spirit," "intellectual scepticism," "the scientific spirit," or any other phrase which means that merely traditional authorities have lost their control, and that the mind is free by means of the truth to seek for larger liberty in discovering truth.

Third, these fundamental conditions being taken for granted, the remaining items are relatively matters of detail. The specifications most emphasized by all my colleagues are as follows:

1. Adequate library facilities, including the scientific journals in each of the departments. Without the latter provision students may waste the larger part of their time doing work which would be needless if they were properly informed about the results of workers elsewhere in their own field. I quote from the report of the English Department; "Ten thousand volumes may be regarded as a minimum library for graduate purposes in English alone, although in some cases special collections, each of a few hundred volumes, may permit a few good dissertations to be produced. Quite as important for English as a large English library are large collections of books in collateral fields, especially (1) general and Germanic linguistics; (2) the literatures in the Germanic languages, as Old and Middle High German, Old Norse, modern German; (3) The Romance literature, especially Old French, modern French, Italian and Spanish; (4) history, especially culture history; (5) the classical literatures, including mediaeval Latin and the literature of the humanists."

2. Collections and apparatus sufficient not merely for illustrating known scientific principles,

but for furnishing the material or the conditions for scientific discovery.

3. Instructors whose time is so freed from undergraduate instruction, administrative duties, or other demands that their strength can be devoted to original research.

4. Regular production of results in each of the fields of research. Actual experience in the enlargement of knowledge and not mere theorizing about it is a necessary factor in adequate training for independent research.

5. A strong and numerous body of graduate students in each department. This body of neophytes is a condition only less essential than the presence of proper instructors. One mind stimulates another. One of my colleagues reports, "We have frequently seen graduate students who come to us after a year's so called graduate work at another institution, where there are only some three or four other graduate students, do here in six months, under the stimulus of association, more than they had done elsewhere in a year."

6. A high standard of preliminary preparation. This is the condition upon which Professor West has so forcibly insisted. Of course the details which must be regarded as essential in preparation are too complicated to be summarily specified.

7. Equalization of allied or subsidiary departments. That is, graduate work cannot be conducted under favorable conditions in a language if the cognate languages are not relatively strong. Work in a physical science would be at a disadvantage if the

tributary sciences were not so equipped as to furnish the necessary reinforcements in the working out of problems.

8. A favorable environment. That is, facilities not academic in the strict sense, but affording larger opportunities for observation and experience in directions cognate to the department concerned, such for instance, as hospitals, clinics, courts, libraries, music, art galleries, and, especially for students of literature, even the theatre.

9. Provision in certain departments for investigation in the field (Geology, Botany, etc.); in other countries (languages, history, etc.); in other institutions (special documents, collections of books, or scientific material, or special apparatus).

10. Utmost absence of arbitrary requirements or conditions in choice of work and in using time as the demands of one's special subject may dictate.

11. Publication facilities, enabling investigators to present their results to their peers and to obtain the benefits of criticism.

12. Provision of fellowships ample enough to defray the living expenses of picked students. Otherwise the most capable may be forced to earn a living directly instead of devoting themselves to investigation and thus earning something better than a living.

After what I have said it goes without saying that education for research, with such conditions as the foregoing as requisites, is certainly one of the things that cannot be monopolized. Any institution would stand self-condemned if it should imagine that it can gain or maintain a monopoly of this type of work. Excellence in scientific research cannot be

confined to a single locality. There cannot be too many additions to the ranks of skilled investigators, provided they are adequately furnished with the equipment necessary for the use of their skill. I hope I shall not be misunderstood, however, when I call attention to the serious misfortune of permitting students to imagine that they are doing graduate work when they are merely prolonging the period of undergraduate absorption. Institutions that cannot furnish facilities for carrying inquiries to the point of discovery, and that cannot assemble a considerable working force both of instructors and of students who are constantly progressing toward discovery, ought to reflect long before they encourage students to remain after taking the Bachelor's degree. In so doing they are likely to keep students temporarily and perhaps permanently in a state of suspended mental animation, when they might develop productive efficiency in a favorable graduate atmosphere.

Third Session, Saturday Morning.

The Association was called to order by President Bliss at 9:30 o'clock A. M. Principal Gilbert B. Morrison, of the William McKinley High School of St. Louis, then presented the following paper:

SOCIAL ETHICS IN HIGH SCHOOL LIFE.

PRINCIPAL GILBERT B. MORRISON, William McKinley High School, St. Louis.

A full and comprehensive treatment of a subject like the one before us is a difficult undertaking — difficult because like other questions dealing with human relations, it involves so many incommensurable elements. The elements of custom, of feeling, of selfishness, and of prejudice, which enter so conspicuously, have no common measure or standard to which they can be bound. Any institution, organization, belief or sentiment which is the result of feeling and not the result of reason can not be reached by means of reason or argument. In our class room work with our students and our prescribed subjects before us our task is comparatively easy and our duty plain. It is here only a question of the best means to a well known end. If the services of the schoolmaster had a function as clear and definite as is that of other employes in the various

walks of life, his burdens would be commensurable with theirs. If we opened our schoolhouse doors in the morning and entered, possessed with mature minds, ripe scholarship and cheerful faces, with clear plans of presentation, and with a sympathetic spirit; if we met our pupils with a friendly, energetic determination to assist them in learning the subjects which we have engaged to teach, and at the close of the school day closed our doors with a cheerful goodnight, with a real, genuine feeling of interest for the well-being and success of our pupils, we would certainly be fulfilling the letter of our contract. Would we be fulfilling its spirit? Would we be giving to the pupils, to the parents, and to the school board the full measure of our usefulness? Without class organizations, athletics, picnics, fraternities, sororities, parties, orchestras, carol clubs, glee clubs, violin clubs, dramatic clubs, receptions and pink teas — without school societies of any description whatsoever—could we still maintain a good school? With our duties as clearly defined as are those of the employes of the Post Office, could the public school fulfill its function of state education as efficiently as does the Post Office fulfill its function in the distribution of the mails? If social matters were ruled entirely out of our schools and left to the home and the church would our schools be better or worse than they are at the present time?

This question I shall not undertake in this paper to answer. I am not yet ready to answer it when put in this unqualified form. It is enough here to say that many intelligent teachers of wide experi-

ence are beginning to believe that our schools would gain by this limitation of function.

One of my associates — a lady teacher of rare tact and ability, who has for years voluntarily entered with spirit into the social and literary affairs of the pupils because she believed they were beneficial, said to me recently that she had slowly and reluctantly reached the conclusion that student organizations of any description whatever are hurtful to the pupils and to the school.

These doubts and apprehensions have probably in some form and in some degree come to all of us. But we have to guard ourselves against these doubts lest we be influenced by the care and responsibility in dealing with the social life rather than by the real content and value of it. The existence of a school organization of an evil kind may be taken as an indication that all organizations are evil, or it may be taken as an indication that organizations of a good kind are a necessity. My own experience thus far leads me to the latter view, though at times I find myself wavering and strongly inclined toward the former.

As I have said on a former occasion the tendency to organize seems to be inherent and spontaneous and manifests itself whenever and wherever large numbers of people are thrown together. This trait manifests itself at all ages from early childhood to old age. It is a natural impulse for the massing of force and power and has in itself no ethical quality whatever. It is even manifested by the lower animals who collect and roam together for the purposes of offense and defense. It also contains the social

instinct in which an individual finds pleasure in the company of his own kind. This organizing tendency may, I think, be put down as a fundamental fact — a fact with which we have to reckon whether the task be congenial or uncongenial.

Considered generally, organizations must be recognized simply as natural phenomena. But when we consider them specifically, each on its merits as to its aims, purposes, and ultimate effects on its members and on others, the question at once takes on an ethical quality, and it must be classed as good or bad as it makes for human well being or for human ill being — as it contributes to the totality of order, harmony, and happiness, or to the totality of disorder, discord and unhappiness. The responsibility then of meeting and guiding the social tendency of our children seems to be ours by virtue of our relation as parents, and of our office as teachers.

In accepting this responsibility we should first ascertain whether there is common ground on which all may stand as a basis for correct opinion. Are there any basic principles of right action which should govern the conduct of teachers outside the class room? Is there any postulate by which the social relations of students and teachers may be measured?

It seems that the common law governing the public schools furnishes us the clue to such a postulate if not the postulate itself in the simple and well known provision that the teacher shall be *in loco parentis* — that our relations with the pupil while under our care shall be that of a wise, kind, sympathetic and judicious parent.

This provision, I think we shall all agree, is founded also upon nature — upon the necessary relation existing between the mind that imparts and the mind that receives. It is well understood by all teachers that however well we may know our subject and however ably we may expose it, our teaching will be fruitless unless we hold ourselves constantly within the horizon of the pupil's sympathies, desires, capacities and interests.

Accepting then the postulate that the teacher is *in loco parentis,* it only remains to determine the true social, ethical relations which should exist between the parent and his child. In finding this we shall find our true relation as teachers.

In transferring the analysis of this relation from the school to the family we are not lessening its difficulty for we shall encounter the same differences of opinion and custom in the conduct of the home that we find in the conduct of the school, but while by so doing we may not alter the nature of the problem, we shall at least bring it nearer to us; we shall see it in a clearer light, and a truer perspective. By taking it home, we shall view it in an atmosphere in which there will be less danger of confusing the real components.

Now, what are these components? They may be considered under two general heads: The rights and duties of the parent, and the rights and duties of the child. It will be understood that these rights and duties which we are here considering are only those relating to the child's mental, moral and social welfare — only those with which the teacher has to deal.

We are not considering the matter of food, clothing and shelter.

In a well regulated family, the child makes known his wishes and receives from the parent a thoughtful hearing. His requests for innocent social pleasure are granted whenever they do not encroach upon the rights of others or interfere with his own daily duties. He is allowed pleasure as a recreation, but not as a consuming occupation. It is his *duty* to submit cheerfully to the decision of his parent as to limitations and propriety. The parent judges the proposed pleasure by its ultimate effects on the child's character and on its immediate influence on his associates, and not on the desirability of the pleasure from an adult standpoint — of the pleasure *per se*. The wish of the child justifies the pleasure unless some evil effect can be foreseen.

The wise and careful parent guards against exhibitions of selfishness and clannishness between the different members of the family. The bright and naturally forward children are taught to assist the weaker ones, and to make them forget the difference between them. In a large family certain ones would not be allowed to withdraw themselves from association with the others, and to plan in secret, pleasures from which the other children were barred; for acts of selfishness and clannishness are not tolerated in a well regulated family.

Let us suppose for example in a certain neighborhood there are several large families. These children would naturally associate together, and would likely form societies and clubs for purposes of mutual enjoyment. They would have their picnics, their

afternoon and evening parties and their teas. They might, with the approval of their parents, even have dances. They might form societies for literary or philanthropic purposes; and in their churches, for Christian endeavor.

The cohesive element in all these gatherings is the social impulse — the desire of the young people to get together. At their age, it is probably a natural segregation whose unconscious impulse is the mating instinct. All this is innocent, natural and even necessary to the normal development of the children.

Now let us further suppose that after being allowed all these diversions and natural liberties, say four boys of a single one of these families, who were especially congenial to one another, and who fancied that they were a little smarter or better looking than their other brothers and sisters, should have a secret meeting in the barn and draw up resolutions and a charter declaring that they would not associate with the other children; and that they further advertise their exclusiveness by adopting a mysterious looking pin and by wearing it conspicuously and ostentatiously. Further suppose that at one of their meetings they resolved to petition the father that they be allowed a special table in the conservatory end of the dining room, and that their napkins and other table ware be decorated with their monogram. Imagine that in leaving the dining room after each meal they stopped at the table of family "barbarians" and sent forth a cabalistic yell. Suppose still further that finding their numbers too small for the highest fraternal prestige, they visited the other families of the neighborhood and called aside four congenial

spirits from each, forming chapters Jones, Smith, Brown, Jenkins, Williams, Adams, Perkins, Baker, Wilson, and Thompson, and that a grand conclave was held in one of the barns, and finding it too small, and lacking in elegance, resolved to importune their "governors" for a "smoke" house of their own, going for this purpose to each separate father, bringing to bear upon him the united influence of the self styled "best boys" of the "best families," uniting their voices in a terrific yell to convince him of their power, their determination and their solidarity.

Try to imagine the father with the barbaric remnant of his divided family meeting these juvenile patricians, and asking them what it all meant, whether it was not selfish and hurtful to their morals, and very distasteful to the other members of the family. Try also to put yourself in the father's places when he heard the assuring response that the organization was for the good of the family, and that he would readily concede it if he could only know the inside works, but the fraternity being sworn to secrecy, he could only take it on faith, and that concerning the "best boys" this faith should come easy to him.

Now try further to imagine what a father who had allowed things to proceed thus far would do under precisely such circumstances. It may be supposed that different fathers would do different things, but it is highly probable that if this supposed father was the least bit old-fashioned this conclave would be dissolved and that a called meeting of the "Smith Chapter" would immediately follow in the family barn—a strictly business meeting at which the father

would be master of ceremonies and would furnish all the numbers on the program. Following this would probably be a confiscation of the "Smith Chapter" coat-of-arms and a place made for its late members at the family table.

Now had these boys formed such an organization under other and opposite circumstances, our view of their case might be quite different. If they had been denied all home pleasure of a diverting and innocent character, if they had been kept down to hard lessons and hard work without relaxation and without sympathy, we could certainly find excuse for their seeking relief even in an objectional form, for one abnormal condition generally breeds another counteracting it. We can find some defense for a lot of boys who hold a card party in a hole in the straw stack if they had been taught that cards and Satan were synonymous terms. We could find strong grounds for the defense of a company of boys and girls having a dance in a hired hall, even in a questionable neighborhood, if that were the only place where such pleasures could be found—if all forms of dancing were proscribed as the acme of sin and frivolity. But happily, with few exceptions, such straight laced methods are no longer found in the home. Here the atmosphere is generally free, and natural, and unreasonable requirements are seldom imposed. It is for this reason that the family fraternity just pictured seems so ridiculous, improbable, and far fetched.

This leads us to the secret fraternity question as it exists in our schools and prepares the way for a consideration of the question from a new point of

view—a point of view looking toward their cause, instead of exclusively toward their effects.

As to their effects, perhaps enough has already been said in previous meetings, and in previous papers. I have covered that ground as well as I could in my paper to the N. E. A. It is unnecessary to go over the same ground again except in brief review.

Since that paper was read, several others have appeared, notably those of Superintendent Cooley, Chairman Smith of the committee appointed by President Harper, and of Mr. Peetee, of Cleveland. In all there is substantial agreement as to the effect of these fraternities. The consensus of the best thought, based on the broadest experience, condemns them. They are condemned because they are unnecessary; because they are factional; because they form premature and unnatural friendships; because they are selfish; because they are snobbish; because they dissipate energy and proper ambition; because they set wrong standards of excellence; because they are narrow; because rewards are not based on merit, but on fraternity vows; because they inculcate a feeling of self-sufficiency in the members; because they lessen the frankness and cordiality toward teachers; because they are hidden, and inculcate dark lantern methods; because they foster a feeling of self importance; because high school boys are too young for club life; because they foster the tobacco habit; because they are expensive and foster habits of extravagance; because of the changing membership from year to year they are liable to bring discredit and disgrace to the school; and because they weaken the efficiency

of, and bring politics into the legitimate organizations of the school and because they detract interest from study.

But these fraternities do not exist as an original fact. They must certainly have a cause for their being. They have risen out of certain conditions. If they are wrong, then we must find something wrong in the conditions—some mistake somewhere.

I have already noted the fundamental fact of a tendency to organize and a tendency to secure pleasure in social coherence. We shall, I think, find one cause of the fraternity if we go back far enough in the college atmosphere existing at the time the first fraternity was formed. When this was I shall not even venture a guess, but whenever or wherever this anomalous birth took place I fancy that there existed between the students and the faculty an air of distance, that the professors were excessively dignified, and dispensed a ponderous curriculum through the medium of high sounding lectures to which the students were required to listen, to catch what they could and to pass an examination upon it; that requirements and memory tasks were imposed upon them such as are never imposed upon human beings outside of college walls; that very little attention was given to the social needs of the students; that a stilted austerity prevailed among the professors which forced a student reaction to get even; that "anything to beat the profs" became a justified rule of action for self preservation; and that one of the means hit upon was the secret fraternity.

The justification which otherwise honest students find in cheating in examinations probably had its ori-

gin in similar conditions. These conditions may have improved but the fraternity still persists, partly from the force of custom and precedent, and partly from other causes. One of these causes lies in that form of selfishness which has always shown itself in the form of some species of caste; the desire to be set apart from the common herd—a desire which Nature originally intended as a spur to real worthiness and true merit, but perverted, appears in a desire for distinction of any sort, worthy or unworthy, merited or unmerited.

Since the earliest recorded times, this tendency toward caste has manifested itself. The patrician in some form or other has appeared in every civilization to lord it over the plebeian. The tendency of the best civilizing agencies is to outgrow this trait. The evolution of society is in the direction of altruism; but the secret fraternity is an example of a sort of reversion of type. It is like sundry other lapses and moral delinquencies which the boy is permitted to descend to when he enters college, but which he is not permitted to carry away from college into the business world.

Whether secret fraternities, as they exist today in the colleges and universities, have any use or justification I shall not attempt at this time to answer. I have been obliged to refer to them in this connection only in seeking their origin in the high school, where they are being formed by our boys and girls in childish imitation of what they see and hear going on in the colleges.

These fraternities, by means of their secret, dark lantern methods, and because of fear or indifference

on the part of principals, have in many cities so persistently multiplied as to become a positive menace to the high schools. As before stated, the consensus of competent opinion condemns them. I shall therefore pass to the problem of handling them—of checking their growth—of abolishing them. To this end I must recapitulate their causal elements that we may view them in a compact form. They exist (1) for self protection against unreasonable requirements of the faculty, (2) for social pleasure, (3) for the gratification of the organizing tendency, (4) for exclusive exaltation—caste.

The first of these causes can be removed only by a regeneration of the atmosphere of the school itself. School requirements must be made reasonable, natural and free from austere and stilted pretense. The best schools of today have outgrown this condition.

The second cause is a natural and legitimate motive and is met and answered through the working management of the school as a whole. Pupils are allowed to have social diversion in the school building. They have their spreads, their socials, their receptions, and their dances, all in the school building, or other suitable place where the teachers are invited—where they renew their youth, and where they enter into the joys and the sympathies of their pupils. They need this diversion fully as much as do the pupils. It keeps open the life currents which make the old and the young mutually helpful to each other. It makes better teachers of them and better men and women. It gives the pupils what they crave and what they need in a secure and sheltered atmosphere.

The third cause, the gratification of the organizing tendency, is also a legitimate motive. This is supplied in providing for literary and science societies, musical clubs, etc. These societies should be, and if rightly managed, are adequate to satisfy the organizing tendency.

In the fourth element, that of secret exclusiveness and caste, we find a motive which, although natural, must not be humored or encouraged—a motive ethically illegitimate, selfish and downward in its influence on character. All that civilization has reached which receives universal assent contains the elements of democracy and altruism. The secret fraternity is wholly subversive of both. Whether we look at it from the standpoint of Christianity, philosophy, or sociology, it is out of harmony with those principles and laws of being which in the last analysis are universally accepted as fundamental.

The application of these principles becomes especially mandatory in the public schools which are essentially democratic. In a private institution, managed to suit the peculiar notions of its owners, a student who does not like the caste system which he may find there can leave it and be done with it; but in a school supported by the general tax the student can not escape its burdens by leaving it. He still must contribute to its support. It is plain to see that in a public high school honey-combed with exclusive sets under the name of fraternities, a father may be taxed for the ostracization of his own boy. It is not an uncommon thing to hear remarked that to be anybody in this or that school one must first secure membership in some fraternity. An essen-

tially democratic institution can not be a breeding place for social differentiation. The two ideas are incompatible, and by their nature antagonistic. It necessarily follows that the schools must shake off this abnormal incubus or they are doomed. Let this country become fully aware that our high schools are caste breeders or caste harborers, and tax payers will cease to provide for their support.

It seems to me then that it becomes our duty as school men, first to see that no legitimate cause or excuse for the existence of these fraternities remains in our schools—to see that their legitimate elements be supplied to the pupils through the school at large, and no less to see that these undemocratic, disintegrating forms of the organizing tendency be courageously and strenuously resisted.

The subject was further discussed by Dr. E. H. Lewis, of Lewis Institute, Chicago.

DR. LEWIS:

I have listened to the discussion this morning with the greatest interest, not only because the subject is important, but because the gentleman who has spoken has a peculiar right to speak on the subject. We all know him as a man of the fullest experience, the most genuine sympathy with student life, and the most genuine moderation. Certainly the facts which have been presented to the disadvantage of high school fraternities are very grave.

I admit fully the trying nature of these facts. There are times when even in Lewis Institute, which is one of the most favorable of experiment stations, all fraternities present themselves to me under the

aspect of unqualified nuisances. But then there are times when adolescence itself appears to me no other thing than an unqualified nuisance, and I wish with the shepherd in the Winter's Tale that there were no years between ten and twenty-three, for there is nothing in the between but fighting and stealing and "wronging the ancientry." But after all, those are moments of overwork or depression, and possibly the real trouble is that I am getting on toward the "ancientry" myself. It isn't everyone of us that has the gift of eternal youth, like Principal Boltwood. I like to be let alone, to be undisturbed in the smooth current of my intellectual life, whereas, for aught that ever I could read or hear, the course of true adolescence never did run smooth.

At the same time it probably runs smoother in a big private school like Lewis Institute than in the public high school, because it is so perfectly easy for the executive to dismiss any student whose presence seems to be an anti-social influence. And undoubtedly that fact does a good deal to bind the boys over to keep the peace. On the other hand, no student has ever been dismissed or suspended from Lewis on account of fraternity troubles, for there have been practically no troubles.

At the beginning of the Institute, nine years ago, the question of allowing fraternities came up in due course of events. It was agreed by those who had had largest experience in such matters that it is impossible to suppress secret organizations; that the instinct, whether civilized or savage, has come to stay; and that where drastic remedies are applied there is generally only one result — namely that before tak-

ing their medicine the frats only think they are secret, whereas after taking they really are secret. So to change the figure of speech and construct an Irish bull, the Institute decided to take the bull by the horns. (To change it once more) at the first rumor of the birth of a fraternity, the parents were informed that the alma mater would take an interest in it providing they chose some member of the faculty to act as sponsor for it.

In this way our system of sponsors arose. To-day we have more than twenty secret societies, and only two or three are of college rank. Every one of them has a sponsor, and every one has taken pride in seeing to it that its sponsor should not be put to shame before his colleagues in the faculty. It is sometimes a bore for a member of the faculty to enter into the affairs and the spirit of the fraternity. But after all we have gradually worked into the spirit of Juvenal's motto, "Homo sum. Nihil humanum mihi alienum puto." If Principal Coy will not scan the Latin too closely, I will work that over into, Pœdagogus sum. Nihil pœdagogicum, nihil adulescentiae mihi alienum puto. In other words, if there must be frats, we want to be in them. We don't wish to intrude — we don't wish to dampen fun, nor to make student customs, but still we are primarily teachers, and our first subject of research is human nature. Any one of the publishers who are with us to-day, in their gentle but watchful fashion, will tell you that the safest place to have a troublesome rival text-book is on their own list. Well, that is our principle exactly.

There will doubtless be more rather than fewer fraternities and sororities in the Institute. The presence of so many acts as a constant suggestion to the forming of new ones. It would not be surprising if in time the whole school, with the exception of a few students who are born grinds, a few others whose parents object, and a very few who do not like to flock with anyone, should be organized into these small groups. But if we may judge by the past, such a consummation will not interfere with what is called school spirit. For it is found that other and larger groupings are as normal to the student body as are the smaller. There are half a dozen literary societies. There is the chorus, of 300 voices. Above all, there is the so-called "Allen C. Lewis Society," which meets once a month, and which consists of the entire day-school. It is quite as truly alive as any of the smaller organizations, as becomes evident when election day comes round. Of course the fraternities struggle among themselves for control of that election. But there is no one ring, and apparently no corruption. At the last election many of the fraternities joined together to support an anti-fraternity ticket, and the election was so close that for several hours the anti-frat ticket was supposed to be elected. The issue was not really an anti-frat issue. A certain very popular student who had never joined any fraternity was the real bone of contention.

Of course in this whole matter of secondary fraternities, we are all aiming at the same end. We all wish to advance the cause of democracy in the hearts of the American people. We wish, as Bishop Wilson said of culture, "to make intelligent beings yet more

intelligent." The real question is, Do fraternities make for or against the social self?

I cannot bring myself to modify the issue so as to read *secondary school fraternities.* I am convinced that if there is a normal period for secret societies, it is the high school period rather than the college period. It is from sixteen to nineteen rather than from nineteen to twenty-one. The earlier period is the period when sentimental attachments and impossible loyalties are strongest, when they do the least harm and the most good. Solemn nonsense is a boyish thing. Vows of eternal friendship are sometimes misplaced, and the earlier the mistake is made and discovered, the better.

But does the fraternity spirit make against democracy? The word democracy is not easily defined; the whole world is trying to define it; trying to reconcile the human need for personal liberty with the new conceptions of the public self, without which there can be no personal liberty. Do the secrecy and the exclusiveness of small groups among the young militate against the welfare of the public self?

I cannot think that secrecy in such a group militates against anything. Publicity is not the same thing as public spirit. The family is the original secret society, and so long as it is a good family, the more secret it is, the better. There is too much in the newspapers about many families. If Americans would do their best to keep their names out of the newspapers, the millenium of democracy would come along faster. The hidden life — that is the only life which the religious and the ethical instinct both

approve, and the hidden life is a thing comparatively rare nowadays.

In the matter of exclusiveness the case is doubtless more serious. On the face of it, it looks as if it were fatally serious. It looks as if these cliques make for nothing but snobbishness and envy and quarreling. And yet there are great social instincts for good underlying even snobbishness, envy, quarelling. Snobbishness is merely a pathetic instinctive worship of distinction, breeding. No man can be a good democrat who is not also, in one corner of his being, a good aristocrat. Vulgarity is not democracy. Envy is merely a distortion of emulation, and a fine emulation is the spring of most of our really social acts. Quarreling is beastly, and yet we cannot do without the fighting instinct. I see no reason why fraternities in the high school should not make for breeding and for fine emulation rather than for the base imitation of these qualities.

It is urged that fraternity life among the young boys springs out of a need for companionship that should be satisfied at home. But surely this implies an overstatement of the case. Surely an adolescent needs something additional to his home-life, something that shall act as a social transition from the home to the world, just as the class room acts as an intellectual transition from the home to the world. The class room does not meet the social need. It might do more to meet it than it does. It might be a place where, in the humaner subjects at least, he could express himself, his personality. Consider the free play of mind that marked the academe of Socrates, that marks the relations of an Oxford tutor

and his men, and ask whether free play of mind is a thing that marks the class room of the American secondary school or even of the American graduate school. It does in some cases. It does, for example, when my friend Scott gets his best men around a table in his seminar room. But in general free play of mind is wanting in our class rooms. We have dropped the military idea in discipline, but we still think that discipline of mind is best achieved through set questions and set answers on matters of the narrowest academic significance.

Now free play of mind is exactly what does mark fraternity life, even in the youngest students. There is no such mental discipline as that which boys give each other in applying their own powers of mind in the criticism of each other's powers of mind. The fraternity is the true laboratory of human nature, the retort and test-tube in which boy learns boy. How much of life consists in learning to know men! Unless one learns that lesson, so that he learns, as Louis Stevenson used to say, "Where he must go warily and where he may lean his whole weight," he will go out from school a pedant, but no man.

You and I are old-fashioned enough to believe in the grave importance of friendship; the right friendship; the friendship that is not assumed in order to sell goods, but that is lived up to at the cost of losing goods, lived up to because our friend stands for truth, or civic need, or for the public self itself. I maintain that the fraternity grows out of the deepest instincts of man. We didn't have it fifty years ago. No, neither did we have the beef trust and the municipal voter's league. New occasions evolve new

expressions for noble instincts. The municipal voter's league is the secretest society in this town, and yet it makes the most for civic publicity. Gideon's band was secret and exclusive. The underground railroad was secret and exclusive. And out of high school fraternities there will grow the voter's leagues of the future.

You will pardon me if I seem to be waxing warm about glittering generalities. After all we are agreed on the general principles underlying the whole discussion. To sum up, however, it seems to me that as man cannot love God, whom he has not seen, before he has learned to love his brother whom he has seen, so a boy cannot love the public, which he has not seen — no, not even in the pages of yellow journalism — until he has learned to love a small group of boys whom otherwise he would be envying and fighting. I grant you that the first boys to join a fraternity are the poor students. But are they also the cheats, the sneaks, the liars of the school? Are they the stingy and covetous? Are they the blockheads who get 100 in mathematics or language and never use their mathematical or linguistic ability in the service of the community? No, they are not. They are the very boys who are at the bottom social, and therefore need to be got hold of by somebody and made instruments of the social self.

I do not believe in uncontrolled sodalities in the high schools, nor in uncontrolled anything in any school. But if fraternities are a good thing in an American private school, I cannot see why they are a bad thing in an American high school. A friend whose opinion carries weight says that the difference

between private and public school "makes all the difference in the world." But to me it somehow seems to make no difference at all.

PRINCIPAL ARMSTRONG, of the Englewood High School, being called for, said:

I do not believe I have thought of this question enough to make an extemporaneous speech. Mr. Morrison stated a very vital point when he said the settling of a question of this kind is largely a matter of feeling and so it is difficult to reach it through argument. It occurs to me that when letters of inquiry sent to large numbers of school men bring back the almost universal reply that secret societies are a detriment to the spirit of the public schools, it is an opinion of great importance. Fraternities and sororities originate usually among the brightest pupils of a school and doubtless have their origin in a common instinct of mankind for organization. It is only after some years have passed that their bad effects show. The organization leans more and more upon the good record of its founders and gives less and less thought to the choice of prospective members. The result is that in a few years the society is made up of a different element.

I recently heard a pupil defending his fraternity by telling what pains were taken to secure only the boys of the best principles to join his society. Within three months his father came to see what he could do to get his son away from the influence of a recently initiated fraternity boy. It is exceedingly difficult for a member of such a society to break off the friendship of fraternity companions. Friendships of young people of high school age need to be

subject to revision from time to time. As a rule they are too young to choose life-long friends in this way.

We owe it to the democratic spirit of the public school more than to all other influences that we are able to make one nation out of many. The whole trend of secret societies is opposed to this spirit. They divide into cliques, and rivalry puts one against another or all against the non-secret society members. When a choice of pupils for a position is to be decided by pupils, membership in a particular society counts for more than fitness for the place. How shall we strengthen this Americanizing spirit in the face of a spirit of seclusion? How are we to settle the race problem when cliques are formed upon less marked distinctions?

I am thoroughly convinced that the whole trend of influence of secret societies is opposed to the unifying influence of our public schools.

PRINCIPAL VOLLAND, of Grand Rapids:

At Grand Rapids we have a few secret societies in the high school. We do not seek to have faculty supervision, such as they have at Lewis Institute. We have, however, a feature in connection with the societies which we greatly deplore, and that is the down town frat rooms. These are under the supervision of neither the faculty nor the parents. The school has been acting for a number of years under the idea that inasmuch as these societies held their meetings outside of school hours, therefore they were matters in which the parents were the more greatly concerned and for which they alone were responsible.

When we consider the amount of partisanship

in our country's politics, is it to be wondered at that the children are also divided into factions? As elsewhere, there are of course combinations in elections in the high school, but we insist that there shall be perfect honesty from the time of the nominations to the declaring of the result. Of course it is sometimes true that the offices of the school are not filled by the best pupils in the class.

However, taking it all in all, we think that the thing that we should guard against most, and which is the source of the greatest danger to the boy, is the down town frat room.

PROFESSOR WALDO, Purdue University:

I want in the first place to express from the college standpoint my very high appreciation of what has been said in these two most excellent papers. It seems to me the discussion has been acute, yet I do not believe that all has been said for or against Greek letter societies. Mr. Morrison, in giving the purpose of these fraternities, has omitted an important factor in their history. He has not gone back far enough. In so far as they now exemplify their original purpose I believe they have much in them that is excellent. They appeared somewhere in the decade of the thirties in the last century. Other causes than exclusiveness and petty aristocracy generated them. No one would say that the Methodists form an objectionable society, yet when John Wesley founded that sect at Oxford in the 18th century, he almost instituted a college fraternity in its earlier meaning. He banded a number of men together for higher service.

The fraternity originating at Hamilton College in those early days was not meant to mark some selfish distinction but to intensify character for unselfish service. Other college fraternities had a similar beginning — the old fraternities so largely founded in New England — yet I fear there has been a marked deterioration.

While I am a fraternity man and prize highly many of the associations that fraternity has brought to me, I feel there has been a gradual slipping away from early ideals — the appearance of questionable if not unworthy motives. In its later developments, New England education tries to pick out the best man, educate him, and make an aristocrat of him.

Our North Central Colleges would lift the masses and labor for a high level of democracy. Wherever our western ideals prevail, our modern fraternity with its exclusiveness and invidious distinctions is apt to be a disturber of academic peace and effort.

Like many other eastern ideas in western schools they do not seem to serve any good purpose. If, in the form often developed in the West, we must recognize in them an irrepressible evil, certainly the methods practiced in Lewis Institute are worthy of all praise. Like other student organizations they should be under the control and supervision of the faculties in order that the good in them may be fostered and the evil as far as possible eliminated.

PRINCIPAL ARMSTRONG:

Pardon me, but in the paper of Dr. Lewis, he referred to an election of a pupil in a school for some place in which he stated he did not believe the spirit

of the fraternities entered, but he did not tell us whether a fraternity man or a non-fraternity man was elected.

DR. LEWIS:

By a vote of seven majority in the whole school, the non-fraternity man was beaten.

The Association then listened to a discussion of the question, "Should Normal Schools undertake the Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools?" by President L. H. Jones of the Michigan Normal College, Ypsilanti, and Dean A. Ross Hill, of the Teachers' College, University of Missouri.

PRESIDENT JONES:

I shall try, as briefly as may be, not to make an extended statement of all phases of this question, but rather to open it up for full and free discussion by the Association. I remember that some years ago a somewhat celebrated American statesman said this nation was confronted by a *condition* and not a *theory*. I feel that we are confronted in the various phases of this discussion by *both a condition and a theory;* and I shall try briefly to state certain vital points in connection with each phase.

As to certain phases of the condition: If you will examine the very excellent paper on the question of "The Preparation of Secondary Teachers," by Professor Dexter, of the University of Illinois, contained in the current year book of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, you will find certain valuable conclusions and very suggestive data. In the course of the discussion, Professor Dexter says that the extensive investigation which he made

shows that of all the teachers now at work in the secondary schools of this country, a little less than six per cent have had professional training from the pedagogical departments and schools of education in the colleges and universities, in addition to graduation from those institutions; and that a little more than twelve per cent of the secondary teachers now teaching in the schools of this country are graduates of normal schools. It would seem, in view of these facts, that the topic should have been changed slightly in its wording so as to stand, "Should Normal schools *continue* the preparation of teachers for secondary schools, now that colleges and universities are establishing chairs of pedagogy and departments of education and are attempting to supplement their academic work with professional training for secondary teachers?"

A further phase of this same question to which I have just alluded seems to me to be of extreme importance. If we concede the fact, which no one doubts, that many of the secondary teachers now in the schools have been engaged for some years in their work and therefore had no opportunity for training when they began, it still remains a fact that more than fifty per cent of the secondary teachers now entering upon their work are utterly without any professional training of any kind, whether from universities or colleges in their educational departments, or from normal schools. It seems to me therefore that it should be our purpose, for the present at least, to use all agencies now available for the training of secondary teachers.

Under the second subdivision, that of *theory,* our topic seems to me to refer to the best agencies for the preparation of secondary teachers, and therefore immediately to raise the question of the comparative efficiency for the training of secondary teachers, of normal schools and educational departments of colleges and universities. Of course, it is impossible, in the few minutes at my disposal, to discuss fully so great a question. I shall limit myself to speaking of one or two vital defects in each of these classes of institutions, and to a statement of certain great capacities found in each of these agencies. Of course, when one comes to speak of normal schools it must be said that there is a wide range and a marked difference between normal schools in the lower class and those having more extensive courses, better equipment, and more competent faculties. My experience is that the range from poor to good is rather greater among normal schools than among any other educational institutions of this country. It must, of course, therefore be admitted that if we are to talk about the excellent results in the preparation of secondary teachers in normal schools, we must be referring to the work done by those of higher grade or better class—especially to normal colleges with equipment and faculty which are equivalent to those in our colleges or smaller universities. A number of the normal schools of this country have now placed themselves fully upon such level; but few of them, however, have courses of study sufficiently extended to give the academic training desirable for secondary teachers. Here has, in general, been their defect, namely, deficient scholarship. A few of them, how-

ever, have quite recently made arrangements to extend their courses and give quite sufficient academic training for teachers of the first two or three years in high school, and a very few of them for the full four years. Wherever a normal school has courses of academic and profesional work of sufficiently high grade, such institution has a decided advantage over chairs of pedagagy and educational departments in colleges and universities—namely, the equipment for the practical training of these teachers in observation and teaching in the training school. In the Michigan State Normal College, with which I am connected, this training school includes the ninth and tenth grades as well as all elementary grades, thus giving opportunity for students in the Normal College to keep in vital touch with a real high school while pursuing their professional training; and the further opportunity of attempting to make application of the principles of education which they have learned, while they are in range of criticism from special teachers. I consider this a matter of vital importance in the training of teachers. Otherwise there is a very great fear that there will always remain a wide gulf between the theory which one has learned in respect to education and the actual ability to apply this theory in the daily work of the school room. I have now indicated the chief defect and chief excellence of the normal school in its attempt to train secondary teachers. My experience of twenty years in the selection and supervision of secondary teachers has convinced me that in the best normal schools the advantage which I have here indicated outweighs all other considerations for teachers in the ninth and

tenth grades, while perhaps the excellences are not so well marked when it comes to training teachers for the eleventh and twelfth grades. But the best normal schools now have courses that equip them for the successful training of secondary teachers through the four years of high school. Of course, I do not ignore the fact that many or most of the attempts in normal schools in the past to train secondary teachers have been made without appropriate courses of study, without sufficient library facilities, and in many cases without a faculty competent to give such training.

Turning to educational departments in colleges and universities, it seems to me possible to state in a similar way the chief defects and excellences of these agencies as applied to the work of training teachers for secondary schools. These educational departments have been in operation in this country but a few years. The University of Michigan was among the first to establish such chair anywhere in the middle west, although I believe Iowa had preceded Michigan. It has been but twenty-five years since the chair of education was founded in Michigan University, and most of the others now in operation through the middle west were founded much later. As Professor Dexter has so well pointed out in his article to which I have already made reference, it is entirely unfair to conclude that the small number of persons now engaged in teaching in this country who have had their training in these educational departments is any fair indication of their present status or capability for work. The number of persons now taking training in these departments in colleges and universities is very large, and within the next few years it will be quite

possible for a much larger number of the high schools in the country than now to secure teachers who have had professional training. Now, I have no disposition whatever to depreciate the extremely valuable work being done by these departments. There is a certain air of general scholarship in connection with a great university which is a motive and stimulus to extended study; but so far as I have observed such work, the university feeling is against the theory that professional training is of advantage to persons intending to teach. Departments of education, as thus far established in the greater universities, are spoken of contemptously by the professors in other departments. The number of teachers and students in these departments is too small to compete with the fully established departments in mathematics, science, classics and philosophy. The case is scarcely less marked in the smaller colleges, especially those given over to classical studies. It seems to me therefore, perfectly manifest that if the colleges and universities through their educational departments are to train teachers for the secondary schools, these departments must at once be put upon a similar basis in respect to faculty and equipment with the other departments of the institution in which they are located. In other words, they must be made to command the respect of the institution of which they are an organic part.

A second defect as now existing in these institutions, is the entire absence of any opportunity for the application of the principles taught, under expert criticism. The student does not have an opportunity, while pursuing his professional course, to observe a

high school in its daily routine work. He does not have the opportunity to catch the spirit of the modern high school. He has no opportunity to try to teach under conditions which would enable some experienced critic to assist him rapidly to make application of the theory which he has studied. The result is, as I have before hinted, that there is great danger that he may never make practical application of what has been taught him in the educational department of the college or the university. The remedy of this defect seems to me to be the establishment in place of more chairs of pedagogy or departments of education, great schools of education. This can be done, perhaps, only in the larger universities, for such school of education will include all grades in the public school, including the high school, as a laboratory, comparable to the well equipped laboratories in physics and chemistry found in the great universities. Here the student throughout his course may find himself in vital contact with a good school, and may, before graduation, have an opportunity to practice his theory under expert criticism. When these changes herein suggested have been made, the school of education in a great university will have become the best possible means for the training of secondary teachers.

DEAN HILL:

I do not think it will be necessary for me to speak at any length on this topic, for I find myself in such general agreement with the gentleman who preceded me that I wish only to emphasize some points already made by him.

President Jones has remarked that normal schools vary greatly in their standards. On this account I find it necessary to discuss separately the different types of normal schools, for what is true of one does not of necessity hold true of others. The most common type of normal schools has a three or four years' course of academic and professional study based upon the work of the elementary grades. It admits students directly from the rural schools and from the eighth grade of town schools; and its course of study on the academic side is confined chiefly to the mathematics, literature, history, and science of the high school curriculum. However scholarly and efficient its faculty, and however well equipped its library and laboratories, it can be nothing but a secondary school with professional training for teachers attached. There are secondary schools in this Association whose faculties and equipment are equal to our good colleges, for instance, the high schools of Kansas City and St. Louis in my own state, but these schools claim the rank of secondary schools; and the same rank must be given to normal schools of the class I have just described. This description of them answers the question whether they should attempt to train teachers for secondary schools. Their graduates certainly cannot claim the requisite scholarship for secondary school work.

If it is urged that the students who attend these normal schools are more mature on the average than secondary school pupils, it must be noted that maturity cannot be measured by lapse of years and that it is easy to give too much weight to this argument, though I acknowledge that it has some force. My

own experience leads me to believe that the graduates of schools of this class are little in advance, so far as scholarship is concerned, of graduates of good high schools. They have not sufficient knowledge of subject matter for the purposes of high school instruction.

Sometimes we are told that while the subject matter taught in these normal schools is practically the same as that taught in the secondary schools, it is the professional study of subjects that the normal schools stand for, and this necessitates the consideration of the algebra, geometry, grammar, etc., of the secondary school course. Now of course the professional study of the high school subjects is important for the high school teacher, but this way of regarding subjects is possible only after the student has grown beyond the stage of scholarship which these subjects themselves represent. As a matter of fact these normal schools confine their professional study of subject matter to the elementary school branches. From every point of view it seems unwise for schools of this class to attempt the preparation of secondary school teachers.

There is another type of normal school which requires about two years of high school work for entrance and builds a four years' course upon that, covering the subject matter of the last two years of the high school and the first two years of college, along with the study of psychology and education. This sort of school can prepare teachers for the small high schools where versatility rather than special knowledge is demanded. Indeed, owing to the fact that the high school instruction is still quite fresh in

mind and that they have not yet narrowed their field of interest through specialization, the graduates of such schools are likely for a few years to succeed better in small high schools than do teachers of equal experience but greater scholarship. But their scholarship is too meager for teaching in large high schools where departments are well differentiated and where special knowledge can and should be demanded. In general there is one disadvantage belonging to any school of this type as compared with a university, in the training of teachers for secondary schools. The atmosphere of a university, with its departments of law, medicine, engineering, etc., is better fitted to give that perspective, that sense of relative values, that large-mindedness which is needed in the one who is to guide youth in the shaping of ambitions, in the selection of a profession, and similar matters which are likely to confront the high school pupil. On the whole, then, it seems advisable for even the stronger normal schools to aim primarily to train teachers for the elementary schools. But I would not have them lose sight entirely of the secondary school field. Some of their students will be better fitted by nature for secondary school work, and they should be given a chance. It seems altogether feasible, by some differentiation of the work, for one institution to prepare teachers for both elementary and secondary schools, and to keep the latter in mind will tend to the maintenance of higher standards of scholarship throughout the normal school.

But if even the strongest normal schools do not afford adequate training for teachers in secondary

schools, what about the universities which should be doing this work? They certainly are not living up to their opportunities, not discharging their full duty to the communities that support them. One professor of education can do little to develop professional enthusiasm and skill, without facilities for observation and practice at the command of his students. The university graduate, even if he has taken courses in history and theory of education, must waste much time at the outset of his teaching career in learning things regarding teaching and management that should be familiar matters to him before he undertakes school teaching on his own account. These things should be learned while he is still under the guidance and supervision of maturer and wiser men. The strong universities should all organize strong professional departments for teachers, schools of education or teachers' colleges, equipped with facilities for observation and practice especially in the field of high school work, and should make these colleges co-ordinate in rank with those of law, medicine, etc. If they do not do this the normal schools must extend their courses and capture the whole field so far as the training of teachers is concerned.

PROFESSOR SCOTT, University of Michigan:

The preceding speakers have, I believe, overlooked, or at least failed to mention, a certain feature of university instruction which to some extent furnishes a substitute for a teachers' college. I refer to the so-called "teachers' courses." In the University of Michigan such courses are now given in all of the leading subjects that are taught in secondary schools. I have myself for many years offered a

teachers' course in Rhetoric and English Composition, and it is elected annually by from 60 to 70 students. It is not a course in composition or in the theory of rhetoric; it is a strictly pedagogical course, that is, the lectures are on methods of teaching. Moreover every member of the class who has not already taught is compelled to do some teaching under direction. I believe I am not wrong in saying that this was the first class in this country in which students were required to do practice teaching in a secondary school.

PRESIDENT JONES:

What Mr. Scott says meets part of the objection which I was making. In the Department which Professor Scott presides over in the University of Michigan the course is on right lines; and such a spirit in the universities would entirely change their relation to the work of secondary schools.

PRINCIPAL HARRIS:

Mr. President: If you desire I can give you a short oral report of my meeting as delegate from this Association with the College Entrance Examination Board.

President Bliss: The Association will be glad to hear the report.

Principal Harris: I certainly appreciate the honor of the appointment and thank the Executive Committee. I shall wish to be of some service in the position and in order to be, must attend all the meetings and keep in close touch with the work.

Your representative was called first to a meeting of the Board on November 12, 1904. Perhaps a state-

ment of the printed order of business will best show you what was done. It was as follows:

I. Roll Call.
II. Minutes of Meeting of May 7, 1904.
III. Communication from Secretary:
  1. Letters from absent members.
  2. Progress of work of the Board.
  3. Financial Statement.
IV. Appointment of Auditing Committee.
V. Communications from Executive Comtee:
  1. List of examiners for 1905.
  2. Appropriation for 1905.
  3. Appointment and compensation of readers for 1905.
  4. Repayment on account of loan.
VI. Reports from special committees:
  1. Committee on proposed changes in the requirements in Latin and Greek.
  2. Committee on time-schedule of examinations.
VII. Annual election of officers.
VIII. Miscellaneous.

There was considerable discussion on the proposed changes in the requirements of Latin and Greek. The report was finally referred to a committee. At the close of the meeting Dr. Butler entertained the Board at luncheon at the University.

Your representative has been called twice since the meeting in November but was unable to go. Another meeting has been called for April 8th and he expects to be in attendance at that time.

At the meeting of the Association of 1904, something was said about bringing before the College Board the views of the Association on the plan of certification to colleges. I wish to say that I am very much in sympathy with the work of the College Board, that I agree with the sentiment expressed in President Bliss's address of yesterday in reference to this Board and the Central Association and I would also recommend that a closer union be established with the Board. I believe the two can work in harmony in the North Central district even.

I wish to ask for more definite instructions in regard to the resolutions, passed yesterday, in reference to the College Entrance Requirements in English.

On motion the report was adopted, and on further motion it was ordered that the expenses of delegates of this Association to the College Entrance Examination Board be paid by the Association.

The Committee on Time and Place of Meeting reported as follows:

We recommend that the next meeting of this Association be held in the city of Chicago on the last Friday and Saturday of March, 1906. We also recommend that the Executive Committee be given authority to change the date of the meeting in case any necessity for so doing should arise, and also to determine in what place in Chicago the meeting shall be held.

E. W. Coy, *Chairman.*

April 1, 1905.

On motion, the report was adopted.

The committee appointed to audit the accounts of the Treasurer reported that they had examined the accounts and had found them correct. The report of the Treasurer follows:

REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1905.

RECEIPTS.

Cash on hand at date of last report	$21 72	
Received from the sale of reports and blanks	20 26	
Received from eighty-two $3.00 memberships	246 00	
Received from eight $5.00 memberships	40 00	
Received from fourteen $10.00 memberships	140 00	
Total		$467 98

DISBURSEMENTS.

Postage	$6 00	
Express	2 62	
Exchange	20	
Expenses of members of committees	84 05	
Printing	257 01	
Total		349 88
Cash on hand		$118 10

J. E. ARMSTRONG, *Treasurer.*

March 31, 1905.

The Executive Committee recommended for election to institutional membership the following:

The La Salle and Peru Township High School, Illinois, T. J. McCormack, Principal.

Lawrence University, Appleton, Wisconsin, Samuel Plantz, President.

The Yankton, South Dakota, High School.

The North High School, Columbus, Ohio, C. D. Everett, Principal.

The Aurora, (Ill.) East Side High School, C. L. Phelps, Principal.

The Joliet, (Ill.) Township High School, J. S. Brown, Principal.

The William McKinley High School, St. Louis, Missouri, G. B. Morrison, Principal.

On motion the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for the above named institutions and they were declared elected to institutional membership.

On recommendation of the Executive Committee the following were elected to individual membership: Professor Herbert F Fisk, Northwestern University; Secretary G. M. Jones, Oberlin College; Joseph D. Elliff, High School Inspector, University of Wisconsin; George H. Locke, Editor of the School Review.

President Thwing offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

The members of this Association desire to express to their fellow member, President Harper, their gladness in the tidings of his improved health, and the sense of hopefulness that, after a swift convalescence he may be able to renew his great work with increased power.

President Bliss anounced the following appointments:

Delegates to the English Conference: Professor F. N. Scott, Principal E. L. Harris, Principal E. W. Coy. Alternates: Professor M. W. Sampson, Principal L. C. Hull, Principal F. B. Pearson.

Delegate to the College Entrance Examination Board: Principal E. L. Harris.

Members of the Commission on Accredited Schools, 1906-1909: Chancellor E. B. Andrews, President George E. McLean, President J. R. Kirk, Director G. N. Carman.

The present membership is as follows:

THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

1903-1906—Dean H. P. Judson, of the University of Chicago; President W. L. Bryan, of the University of Indiana; Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Superintendent C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis.

1904-1907—Dean E. A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; President J. H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland.

1905-1908—President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President J. R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal School, Kirksville; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute, Chicago.

1905-1906—Professor J. V. Denney and Inspector W. W. Boyd of the Ohio State University; President C. F. Thwing and Inspector Bowen, of Western Reserve University; Secretary G. M. Jones, of Oberlin College; Principal E. W. Coy, of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati; President J. B. Angell, of the University of Michigan; Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo; Principal F. L. Bliss, of the Detroit University School; Inspector H. A. Hollister, of the University of Illinois; Professor G. E. Vincent, of the University of Chicago; Professor H. E.

Griffith, of Knox College; Professor W. R. Bridgman, of Lake Forest College; Principal C. W. French, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of the Englewood High School, Chicago; Professor J. A. James, of Northwestern University; Inspector A. W. Tressler, of the University of Wisconsin; President E. D. Eaton, of Beloit College; Inspector G. B. Aiton, of Minnesota; Inspector J. F. Brown, of the University of Iowa; President H. H. Seerley, of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls; Professor A. Ross Hill, of the University of Missouri; Professor M. S. Snow, of Washington University; Superintendent F. L. Soldan, of St. Louis; Professor L. Fossler, of the University of Nebraska; Inspector T. M. Hodgman, of Nebraska; Professor W. H. Carruth, of the University of Kansas; Principal W. H. Smiley, of the Denver High School.

The Nominating Committee recommended the following for election to the offices of the Association for the ensuing year:

FOR PRESIDENT:

Chancellor Geo. E. McLean,
University of Iowa.

FOR VICE PRESIDENTS:

WISCONSIN —

President Van Hise,
University of Wisconsin.

Principal C. E. McLenegan,
West Division High School, Milwaukee.

MICHIGAN —

President James B. Angell,
University of Michigan.

President L. H. Jones,
State Normal College, Ypsilanti.

OHIO —

President Charles William Dabney,
University of Cincinnati.

Principal Frank B. Pearson,
East High School, Columbus.

IOWA —

Dean J. H. T. Main,
Iowa College, Grinnell.

Principal Crusenbury,
Des Moines High School.

ILLINOIS —

President E. J. James,
University of Illinois.

Principal J. Stanley Brown,
Joliet Township High School.

MISSOURI —

President J. R. Kirk,
State Normal School, Kirksville.

Professor A. Ross Hill,
State University, Columbia.

NEBRASKA —

Professor T. M. Hodgman,
University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

INDIANA —

Professor T. F. Moran,
Purdue University, Lafayette.

Principal G. W. Benton,
Shortridge High School, Indianapolis.

KANSAS —

President Frank Strong,
State University, Lawrence.

President Norman Plass,
Washburn College, Topeka.

MINNESOTA —

State Inspector George B. Aiton,
Minneapolis.

Principal E. V. Robinson,
Central High School, St. Paul.

COLORADO —

Dean Edward S. Parsons,
Colorado College, Colorado Springs.

OKLAHOMA—
President David R. Boyd,
State University, Norman.

FOR SECRETARY:

Professor J. V. Denney,
Ohio State University, Columbus.

FOR TREASURER:

Principal J. E. Armstrong,
Englewood High School, Chicago.

FOR MEMBERS OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE:

Principal F. L. Bliss, Detroit University School, Detroit, Mich.
Professor F. N. Scott, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
President E. J. James, University of Illinois, Champaign.
Principal G. W. Benton, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, and the President, the Secretary and the Treasurer, *ex-officio.*

On motion the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for the persons above-named and they were thereupon declared elected.

President Bliss: I feel that no greater honor is delegated to me in connection with the holding of this office than of turning the same over to such a renowned successor. I am very glad to introduce to you, President MacLean.

President MacLean: My first wish is that this valuable Association may continue influential and full of power. This Association is one that has been dear to me. With all my heart I thank you personally for bestowing the honor of its presidency upon me. I recognize that it is not a personal gift; that you are acknowledging the great state of Iowa. I trust you will help us in Iowa to recognize that we are the source of more than one "Iowa Idea." It has been a sort of joke with seriousness behind it,

that Iowa was attached to the high note of C, because Iowa has more of certain things beginning with C than any other state—Corn, Cattle, Chickens, Coin in banks, influential Congressmen, and two Cabinet members. We much desire to add the great C standing for genuine Culture, for which this Association stands. By the increased co-operation of the educators in the imperial states of this mid-west, we may hope that the keynote of the address of the president of this year, in reviewing the work of this Association for its ten years, the keynote of deeds rather than mere talk, may ring through the second decade of our history. The close affiliation of secondary schools, colleges and universities, public and private, with the development of school and college inspection and an accrediting system, is to be given over as no mean contribution to Amercian education at this moment of its increasing influence in world-wide education.

The Association then adjourned.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

INSTITUTIONS.

(c. m. means charter member.)

OHIO.

Ohio State University, c. m., Columbus, President W. O. Thompson.
Western Reserve University, c. m., Cleveland, President Chas. F. Thwing.
Oberlin College, c. m., Oberlin, President H. C. King.
Ohio Wesleyan University, c. m., Delaware, President Herbert Welsh.
Denison University, '99, Granville, President Emory W. Hunt.
University of Cincinnati, '99, Cincinnati, President C. W. Dabney.
Miami University, '04, Oxford, President Guy P. Benton.

Central High School, c. m., Cleveland, Principal Edward L. Harris.
Hughes High School, '96, Cincinnati, Principal E. W. Coy.
Steele High School, '96, Dayton.
High School, '96, Toledo, Principal Wm. T. Harris.
Walnut Hills High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal W. Taylor Harris.
Woodward High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal Geo. W. Harper.
West High School, '00, Cleveland Principal Theo. H. Johnston.
East High School, '02, Columbus, Principal F. B. Pearson.
University School, '02, Cleveland, Principal George D. Pettee.
South High School, '02, Cleveland, Prncipal G. A. Ruetenik.
Lincoln High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal J. W. McLane.
East High School, '02, Cleveland, Principal B. U. Rannels.
Raven High School, '03, Youngstown, Principal W. L. Griswold.
North High School, '05, Columbus, Principal C. D. Everett.

MICHIGAN.

University of Michigan, c. m., Ann Arbor, President Jas. B. Angell.
Albion College, c. m., Albion, President Samuel Dickie.
Central High School, c. m., Grand Rapids, Principal A. J. Volland.
Michigan Military Academy, c. m., Orchard Lake, Principal L. C. Hull.
High School, '95, Kalamazoo, Superintendent S. O. Hartwell.
East Side High School, '95, Saginaw, Superintendent E. C. Warriner.
Detroit University School, '00, Detroit, Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

INDIANA.

Indiana University, c. m., Bloomington, President W. L. Bryan.
Wabash College, c. m., Crawfordsville, President W. P. Kane.
High School, c. m., LaPorte, Superintendent J. W. Knight.
High School, '96, Fort Wayne, Principal C. F. Lane.
Girls' Classical School, '00, Indianapolis, Principal May W. Sewall.
High School, '01, LaFayette, Superintendent E. Ayers.
Howe School, '04, Lima, Rector T. H. McKenzie.
Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Principal G. W. Benton.

ILLINOIS.

University of Illinois, c. m., Champaign, President E. J. James.
University of Chicago, c. m., Chicago, President Wm. R. Harper.
Northwestern University, c. m., Evanston, President ———
Lake Forest College, c. m., Lake Forest, President R. D. Harlan.
Knox College, '96, Galesburg, President ——
High School, c. m., Evanston, Principal Henry L. Boltwood.

Northwestern Academy, c. m., Evanston, Principal A. H. Wilde.
Morgan Park Academy, c. m., Morgan Park, Dean W. J. Chase.
Manual Training School, c. m., Chicago, Director H. H. Belfield.
Harvard School, c. m., Chicago, Principal John J. Schobinger.
High School, c. m., Peoria, Superintendent Newton C. Dougherty.
Lake Forest School, Lake Forest, Head Master J. C. Sloan.
West Division High Schaal, '96, Chicago, Principal C. M. Clayberg.
Hyde Park High School, '95, Chicago, Principal C. W. French.
Lake View High School, '96, Chicago, Principal B. F. Buck.
Englewood High School, '96, Chicago, Principal J. E. Armstrong.
Ottawa Tp. High School, '96, Ottawa, Principal J. O. Leslie.
Lyons Tp. High School, '96, La Grange, Principal Cole.
Lewis Institute, '95, Chicago, Director G. N. Carman.
Streator Tp. High School, '97, Streator, Principal ——
Bradley Polytechnic Institute, '97, Peoria, Director E. O. Sisson.
High School, '98, Elgin, Principal E. J. Kelsey.
Lake High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Edward F. Stearns.
Marshall High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Louis J. Block.
Kewanee High School, '04, Kewanee, Principal J. B. Cleveland.
LaSalle and Peru Tp. High School, '05, Principal T. J. McCormack.
East Side High School, '05, Aurora, Principal C. L. Phelps.
Township High School, '05, Joliet, Principal J. Stanley Brown.
Cicero-Stickney Tp. High School, Clyde, Principal H. V. Church.

WISCONSIN.

University of Wisconsin, c. m., Madison, President Charles R. Van Hise.
Beloit College, c. m., Beloit, President Edward D. Eaton.
Ripon College, '04, President Richard C. Hughes.
Milwaukee-Downer College, '97, Milwaukee, President Ellen C. Sabin.
Milwaukee Academy, '97, Milwaukee, Principal J. H. Pratt.
Racine High School, '05, Racine, Principal E. W. Blackhurst.
West Division High School, '04, Milwaukee, Principal C. E. McLenegan.
North Division High School, '04, Milwaukee, Principal R. E. Krug.
Lawrence University, '05, Appleton, President Samuel Plantz.

MINNESOTA.

Humboldt High School, St. Paul, Principal H. S. Baker.
Central High School, '04, St. Paul, Principal E. V. Robinson.

IOWA.

State University of Iowa, c. m., Iowa City, President Geo. E MacLean.

Cornell College, c. m., Mt. Vernon, President Wm. F. King.
State Normal School, c. m., Cedar Falls, President D. S. Wright.
Iowa College, '95, Grinnell, President J. H. P. Main.

MISSOURI.

University of Missouri, c. m., Columbia, President Richard H. Jesse.
Washington University, c. m., St. Louis, Chancellor Winfield S. Chaplin.
Drury College, '98, Springfield, President Homer T. Fuller.
Missouri Valley College, '98, Marshall, President Wm. H. Black.
High School, '96, St. Louis, Principal W. J. S. Bryan.
Westminster College, '00, Fulton, President John H. McCracken.
Mexico High School, Mexico, Superintendent D. A. McMillan.
Manual Training High School, '00, Kansas City.
Mary Institute, '00, St. Louis, Principal E. H. Sears.
Kirkwood High School '00, Kirkwood, Superintendent R. G. Kinkead.
Park College, '02, Parkville, President Lowell M. McAfee.
Academy of Drury College, '04, Springfield, Principal C. P. Howland.
Wm. McKinley High School, '05, St. Louis, Principal G. B. Morrison.

NEBRASKA.

University of Nebraska, '96, Lincoln, President E. Benj. Andrews.

KANSAS.

University of Kansas, '96, Lawrence, Chancellor Frank Strong.

COLORADO.

University of Colorado, '96, Boulder, President Jas. H. Baker.
Colorado College, '96, Colorado Springs, President W. F. Slocum.
High School No. 1, '96, Denver, President Wm. H. Smiley.

OKLAHOMA.

University of Oklahoma, '01, Norman, President David R. Boyd.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

High School, Yankton, Principal R. C. Shellenbarger.

INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS.

OHIO.

Charles S. Howe, '02, President of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland.
Jos. V. Denney, '03, Dean of the College of Arts, Philosophy and Science, Ohio State University, Columbus.

W. W. Boyd, '03, High School Visitor, Ohio State University, Columbus.

D. R. Major, '04, Professor in Ohio State University, Columbus.

G. M. Jones, '05, Secretary of Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.

MICHIGAN.

W. W. Beman, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Fred N. Scott, '98, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

L. H. Jones, '95, President of the State Normal School, Ypsilanti.

A. S. Whitney, '03, High School Inspector, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Delos Fall, '03, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing.

INDIANA.

Clarence A. Waldo, '95, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

Carl Leo Mees, '96, President of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute.

J. J. Mills, '99, President of Earlham College, Richmond.

Edward Ayers, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.

W. W. Parsons, '99, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute.

Stanley Coulter, '01, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

C. N. Kendall, '01, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis.

T. F. Moran, '02, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

S. A. Forbes, '95, Dean, University of Illinois, Champaign.

A. V. E. Young, '95, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Thomas C. Chamberlin, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Henry P. Judson, '85, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Marion Talbot, '97, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Wm. A. Greeson, '97, Dean of Lewis Institute, Chicago.

F. W. Gunsaulus, '96, President of Armour Institute, Chicago.

U. S. Grant, '02, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Thomas F. Holgate, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

J. A. James, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

Henry Crew, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

A. F. Nightingale, c. m., County Superintendent, 1997 Sheridan Road, Chicago.

R. E. Hieronymus, '03, President of Eureka College, Eureka.
H. A. Hollister, '03, High School Inspector, University of Illinois, Champaign.
E. G. Cooley, '04, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.
H. F. Fisk, '05, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Geo. H. Locke, '05, Editor of the School Review, University of Chicago.

WISCONSIN.

Edward A. Birge, '96, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
M. V. O'Shea, '98, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
A. W. Tressler, '03, High School Inspector, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

MINNESOTA.

George B. Aiton, '97, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis.

IOWA.

J. F. Brown, '03, High School Inspector, State University, Iowa City.

MISSOURI.

F. Louis Soldan, '00, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
John R. Kirk, '98, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.
C. M. Woodward, '99, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.
Ben Blewett, '03, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
A. Ross Hill, '04, Dean of Teachers' College, University of Missouri, Columbia.
Joseph D. Elliff, '05, High School Inspector, University of Missouri, Columbia.

NEBRASKA.

J. W. Crabtree, '04, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

KANSAS.

W. A. Davidson, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

AS AMENDED AT THE NINTH ANNUAL MEETING, MARCH 26, 1904.

ARTICLE I.

NAME.

The name of this Association shall be the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE II.

OBJECT.

The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States.

ARTICLE III.

MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1.— The members of the Association shall consist of the following two classes: First, colleges and universities, and secondary schools. Secondly, individuals identified with educational work within the limits of the Association.

Sec. 2.— Election to membership shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting, and shall be made only upon the nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3.— In the membership of the Association, the representation of higher and of secondary education shall be as nearly equal as possible.

Sec. 4.— An institutional member shall be represented at the meeting of the Association by its executive head, or by some one designated by him in credentials addressed to the Secretary.

Sec. 5.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than fifteen units of secondary work as defined by the Commission on Accredited Schools.

Sec. 6.— No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

Sec. 7.— No secondary school shall be eligible to membership which does not provide fifteen units of secondary work as defined by the Commission on Accredited Schools.

ARTICLE IV.

POWERS.

All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

ARTICLE V.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

Section 1.— The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents from each state represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and four other members elected by the Association.

Sec. 2.— The officers shall be chosen at the anual meeting for the term of one year, or until their successors are elected. The election shall be by ballot.

Sec. 3.— The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint committees for conference with other bodies, whenever in their judgment it may seem expedient.

Sec. 4.— In case an officer holding office as representative of an institutional member severs his connection with the institution represented, he shall at his discretion hold his office until the close of the next regular meeting of the Association.

Sec. 5.—The Executive Committee shall have authority to fill a vacancy in any office, the officer elected by the committee to hold office until the close of the next annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

Section 1.—The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents selected by the Executive Committee, shall preside at

the meetings of the Association and shall sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

Sec. 2. — The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the Association and attend to all necessary correspondence and printing.

Sec. 3. — The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

Sec. 4.—The Executive Committee shall make all nominations for membership in the Association, fix the time of all meetings not otherwise provided for, prepare programmes and act for the Association when it is not in session. All the acts of the Executive Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

MEETINGS.

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association and such special meetings as the Association may appoint.

ARTICLE VIII.

MEMBERSHIP FEE.

To meet expenses, an annual fee of $10 shall be paid by each university, $5 by each college and $3 each by all other members, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.

QUORUM.

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.

AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meting.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1905-1906.

PRESIDENT:

Chancellor Geo. E. McLean,
University of Iowa.

VICE PRESIDENTS:

WISCONSIN—
President Van Hise,
University of Wisconsin.
Principal C. E. McLenegan,
West Division High School, Milwaukee.

MICHIGAN—
President James B. Angell,
University of Michigan.
President L. H. Jones,
State Normal College, Ypsilanti.

OHIO—
President Charles William Dabney.
University of Cincinnati.
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BELFIELD, Henry H., Manual Training School, Chicago, Ill.
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